

## THE CLEARING HOUSE

*A journal for modern junior and senior high schools*

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# CAN *a* LIBERAL TEACH *in our* SCHOOLS?

By KERMIT EBY

THESE ARE critical days! Institutions that were taken for granted in pre-war years are on the defensive. Democratic forms of government and democratic traditions of freedom and protection of civil liberties are being crushed as dictatorships multiply.

The forces of Fascism are threatening Europe. The Communists have abandoned their historical mission of world revolution, and are allying with liberal groups to oppose the spread of war and Fascism.

Today, the great conflict is not between Communism and Fascism, but between liberalism and reaction. It must never be forgotten that the Loyalist Government in Spain was elected to office by the majority of the Spanish electors, and that the civil war was precipitated by the reactionary groups who were opposed to the mild re-

forms of the Republican Government. Consequently, if the Republican Government is crushed, further opportunity for evolutionary reform will be indefinitely postponed.

Fundamentally, our situation is much like that of Spain. Certain specific reforms are necessary to restore the faith of many in our institutions.

The problem of nine or ten million unemployed in the midst of business recovery; the great numbers of American citizens living on less than a subsistence level; the uncertainty of youth; the insecurity of the aged; and the plight of great numbers of the middle class, are all indicative of the great tasks yet unsolved. At present liberal-minded Americans insist that these problems can be solved without the sacrifice of personal liberty.

No group is more insistent that they be solved democratically than the educators. Their resolutions are filled with avowals of their determination to meet their responsibility. Acting in groups, and surrounded by like-minded people, their courage is boundless. Face to face with actual situations, and isolated in their respective communities, their courage is less militant.

This is inevitable. The resolutions of the respective teacher's organizations point towards the gradual introduction of a co-operative economy in place of our present competitive one.

Boards of education are seldom elected

EDITOR'S NOTE: *This article discusses intelligently the plight of the liberal teacher "who takes his teaching responsibility seriously enough to interpret the American heritage, and advocate economic reform which will make security for all possible. He places his superintendent in a delicate position. He antagonizes parents and school boards and organizations." The author, who teaches Home and Foreign Problems in the senior high school, Ann Arbor, Michigan, suggests a few attitudes that such teachers should take, and he also advocates certain steps that they might take.*

from among citizens trained to see the social implications of our modern economic order. They are manned by business men—and consequently approach the problems of education from the point of view of business men. Too often superintendents are hired because they meet the standards of their employers; and many, many times too often they lose their contacts with the average man because their salaries open up Chamber of Commerce membership, Rotary dinners and social contacts with the rulers of the community.

Consequently when some rash teacher takes his teaching responsibility seriously enough to interpret the American heritage, and advocates economic reform which will make security for all possible, he places the superintendent in a delicate position.

This position becomes doubly delicate, if the teacher actively participates in political groups that desire to carry ideals into action. Superintendents also sign contracts! As agents of the business groups, they must conciliate their masters, even though it cost the teacher his job and the superintendent a few uneasy moments when he recalls the resolutions of the N.E.A.

Often there is little consideration for the teacher. Frankly, school administrators are often contemptuous of their teachers. Compared with the "masters of finance," and the "captains of industry" whom they occasionally meet, teachers seem rather innocuous. If they had any ambition they would have become administrators! That there are occasional queer specimens who prefer to know and to teach is hard to believe.

Ambitious young men anxious to get along in their profession soon discover that it pays to be good, join the Junior Chamber of Commerce, the Kiwanis Club, and if they are interested in politics, the leading political party in the community. Having made this discovery, they bow at the proper moment when their superior appears.

Kindred spirits soon discover each other; and the higher powers, surrounded by their

stooges, inflate their egos by congratulating themselves that they have arrived.

In order to stay in power they manage the state and local teacher's organizations. State organizations are officered by administrators. Local groups are controlled by playing one small group against the other. This is comparatively easy. Petty jealousies are common among teachers lost in the minutia of their jobs, and there are often teachers willing to curry favor by reporting signs of rebellion among their co-workers.

If neither of these ideas works, a few variations in the salary schedule never fails to do the trick. Public schools are an industry—and much the same patterns prevail in them as in industries.

One of the first discoveries of the young idealist, who determines to present the problems of our democracy to his classes, is that any advocacy of change is dangerous.

Schools are institutions, and as such their function is to maintain the values which the dominant or most vociferous groups want maintained. To persist in presenting the minority view makes him a propagandist! Simply stated, one can propagandize indefinitely for the *status quo*. To do so is perfectly proper.

The conservative approach to teaching has many ramifications. In history, the conservative emphasizes the glorious revolution of 1776, teaches the French revolution fairly objectively, but has a tendency to hold rather lightly our neighbors to the south, who insist on more than one revolution.

Of course, the Russian revolution was evil. How could it be otherwise, with the church crushed and the Kulaks liquidated? (Some of the charges against Jefferson and the fate of the Tories are completely forgotten.) The conservative is the great perpetuator of the "War Myth" in American history. America never fought an unjust war, never attacked, always defended; nor will she ever attack in the future. Since we are a lamb among wolves, it is necessary to have a strong army and navy to protect our

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The teacher who believes in complete objectivity, even to the inclusion of the Russian revolution, who doubts the war myth, and advocates international coöperation and a patriotism based on the common humanity of man, is apt to incur the enmity of the professional patriots—and as a result to lose his job.

Youth has an uncanny ability to detect hypocrisy. Young people realize, from their own experiences, that much which is mouthed by teachers who never contact life outside their classroom and bridge club, just does not fit life as they know it.

Consequently a teacher who has experienced life, who is not afraid of its smells, brings a freshness to the classroom. History is brought within the experience of the learner. The usual apathy disappears, and the startling news gets around, that there actually is such a thing as a vital learning experience. The novelty is so great that students make known their desire to learn their history under a certain teacher.

Then the trouble starts! Jealousy develops! Whispering campaigns get under way. An occasional student is quizzed to discover what pernicious doctrine is being taught, what books are being read. Once the discovery is made, gossip begins its work.

By the time the news reaches the city busy-bodies, it is only a matter of time until the proper members of the Board of Education hear that there is a "communist" on the loose.

Teachers, like ministers, learn sooner or later that it's safer to deal with abstract virtues than specific problems. Almost anyone is opposed to the "glaring injustices of our social order," and is willing to see injustice driven from the land. However, not everyone is willing to accord Negro youngsters admission to school social functions. Nor is there much concern when a mulatto girl with a beautiful voice loses an opportunity for a solo part in the operetta.

Lovers of justice are usually agreed that all Americans have a right to work at a living wage. The trouble starts when an effort is made to determine a living wage; and it multiplies when attention is called to the disparity between the standards and the average payrolls in the local factory.

The social-science teacher is not the only one facing this problem. The honest chemistry teacher faces the same dire fate if he calls the attention of his students to the frauds in patent medicines and cosmetics. So does the economics teacher who honestly teaches the economic waste in advertising, or shows his students how public utilities purchase good will by advertising in the school papers. The examples are endless.

Unfortunately for the high-school teacher of controversial issues the pupils go home at night to talk over their lessons of the day with their parents. (College professors are more fortunate.)

There is often a great gulf between the educational conditioning of the parent and the child. The parent was brought up to believe in the patterns of pre-war America. If he is upper middle class, he may not have faced the problems of unemployment. He may believe that unemployment is unnecessary, that anyone willing to work can get a job!

The terms Socialism and Communism are to such parents as a red flag is to a bull! Let the teacher beware, when his pupils go home and suggest that our present economic order is not all it should be, for it takes father only a few minutes to get in touch with the conservatives on the school board, who may have read an editorial in the morning paper calling attention to the number of teachers actively teaching Communism.

It is often difficult to use the vocabulary necessary to teach modern social problems. Many adults are so afraid of Communism that the word alone conjures up pictures of daggers and bombs. Such minds are incapable of understanding the aims of the objective teacher. Failure to denounce the

enemy, in their minds, is tantamount to support.

Experts in the art of presenting controversial issues insist on the necessity of presenting all the facts and permitting the pupils to formulate their own conclusions. Rarely if ever is the teacher supposed to color the opinions of his pupils. God-like, he is to remain aloof from controversy. He can diagnose, but he dare not prescribe.

Such a program is death for the teacher who feels. If he is not emotionally dead, there will be causes which need pleading, wrongs which need righting. To be objective on war, poverty, political campaigns, and crime, is hypocrisy. And to fail to anticipate the results of certain causes is the blindest stupidity!

Now is the time to act if we want to preserve our liberties—not tomorrow. The right to be free must be earned daily. The democratic ideal is not static. Security cannot rest on insecurity!

The conscientious teacher, today, has a great responsibility. He must teach that it is not agitation and propaganda that create social discontent; it is social discontent that invites agitation and propaganda. He must lead his pupils to see that the democratic ideal must be the heritage of all.

The liberal teacher will often be misunderstood, often heart-sick at the lack of social vision around him.

Frustrated by the apathy of his colleagues, he may be tempted to withdraw from his task. If he does, another bulwark of freedom will crumble.

The individual liberal cannot stand alone. Nor can he expect unqualified support from his professional organizations. Too many of the members are economically and politically illiterate. Consequently he must seek his security in an organization made up of people conscious of the contemporary problems of democracy, and willing to face the tasks for their solution.

The American Federation of Teachers is such an organization.

It consists of liberals, free from class consciousness. Full professors and classroom teachers mingle as equals. Administrators are banned from membership except when the administrator is completely in sympathy with the teacher's point of view. The A. F. of T. is an industrial union. It seeks to form a common front with all other liberals and workers.

Only as the alliance is strengthened and becomes militant can the liberal teacher gain security. No teacher or worker is strong enough to stand alone.

Teachers are also citizens. Often they act more like slaves. Slaves to the administrator and the community. They are afraid to think out loud for fear of giving offense. How can they expect to teach students to think fearlessly if they are beset by fears?

Teachers should be proud of their profession, not apologetic. They are rendering as much of a service as the lawyer and doctor. If they are worth their salt, they know more about their business than a real-estate man, and should know more about it than the administrator who never teaches a class, and perhaps is so used to giving orders that he has lost the art of persuasion.

Teachers are tax-payers. They are voters. As intelligent and fairly civic-conscious citizens, they should affiliate with political and civic organizations and learn to speak up in meetings. It would give them confidence, and incidentally, teach them that a community is sometimes as anxious for leadership as are children.

The liberal must be fair. He must insist on the same rights in the classroom that he demands for himself in society. Permeated by the philosophy of the sacredness of the individual, he must develop persons, not crush them. Democracy cannot be taught by a dictator.

Finally, the liberal must maintain his convictions. He must be sustained by the faith that ultimately ideals triumph. He must be convinced that there is no compromise with one's intellectual integrity!

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# Will Education Go DEMOCRATIC?

By ALONZO F. MYERS

THE WRITER recognizes that it is very dangerous to suggest that education may become, or should become, democratic, and that any educator who openly advocates it and makes specific proposals for accomplishing it lays himself open to the charge of radicalism. He, therefore, hastens to state that the views expressed in this paper are his own personal views, that the institution with which he is connected is in no respect responsible for them, and that they were placed on paper by means of his own typewriter, and on his own time.

In general, it is the writer's belief that American education, known as the chief instrumentality of a democratic society to perpetuate itself, is one of the most autocratic institutions in that society.

This generalization holds whether it be considered from the point of view of the relations which exist between teachers and

pupils, or of those which exist between administrators and teachers. It is the writer's contention that an educational system organized and managed along autocratic lines can not serve well the needs of a democracy, and that in fact our educational system does not serve well the needs of our society.

Certainly a chief concern of education in and for a democracy should be democracy. An examination of our curriculums and practices gives convincing evidence that democracy is not a major concern of our educational system.

If it were, presumably it would find expression through teaching the ideals of democracy, through the establishment of democratic procedures in schools, and through a critical evaluation of the institutions and practices of contemporary society in the light of democratic principles and standards. Perhaps the schools are not wholly to blame for this lack. It has been a long time since there was any consciousness on the part of the American people that democracy was something to be achieved, worked for, appreciated, and defended.

It is true that we went into the World War, with Czarist Russia and Imperial Japan as allies, to make the world safe for democracy. But even then we thought we were making the rest of the world safe for democracy, if we thought about the matter at all.

We knew democracy was safe here. It has been only since 1930 that any considerable number of our people have begun to realize that the existence of our democracy is threatened. That realization must inevitably cause thoughtful persons to make a



EDITOR'S NOTE: *A storm of controversy is likely to follow the appearance of this article. Doctor Myers, who is a professor in the School of Education, New York University, New York City, suggests a far-reaching shake-up in the organization of our elementary and secondary school system. Among the several interesting proposals he makes are these: That ultimate authority should rest with committees of teachers. And that administrators should serve for short, unrenewed terms. Whether our readers like these ideas or not, they will be welcomed as thought-provoking. We shall be glad to receive letters discussing the points raised.*

critical examination of our educational establishment from the point of view of its contribution or lack of contribution to the preservation of democracy.

Let us examine a few classroom procedures with this point in mind. Few dictators have more complete authority than does the classroom teacher over his subjects, the pupils. They are regimented, marched in, marched out, made to obey rules which they have had no hand in formulating, and the reasonableness of which they do not understand. What a preparation for democratic citizenship! It is perfectly true that not all classrooms are like this, but the description undoubtedly fits a large majority.

A prime requisite for successful citizenship in a democracy is the ability to arrive at sound independent judgments relative to political, economic, and social problems and issues. What does the school do to aid in the development of this ability?

The school gives the pupil a textbook from which he is expected to learn the correct answers. Few pupils in American schools from first grade through the university gain experience in evaluating conflicting claims, weighing evidence, searching for the truth through a mass of misleading statements and propaganda, and finally of arriving at independent judgments. Why? Because our American schools are authoritarian schools—textbook schools.

Our schools are largely schools for the prevention of thought rather than schools for the development of the ability to think.

Let us now examine certain teacher-administrator relationships. Perhaps there we may find the roots of the difficulty. Again we find an autocratic, rather than a democratic, pattern. Teachers are hired, fired, regimented, told what to do, how to do it, when to do it, by the administrative and supervisory hierarchy.

The pattern is neither democratic nor professional. Rather it is the pattern of industry in an open-shop community. Teach-

ers are afraid to organize, and many teachers have lost their jobs for attempting it.

It is not the writer's contention that autocratic administration and supervision in education are new developments. Quite the opposite is true. Public-school supervision, especially at the elementary level, developed along autocratic lines because the preparation of elementary teachers was so inadequate as to make any other type of supervision impossible. It is one of the great inconsistencies in American education that in spite of our enormous expenditures for public education we have been willing to leave the important task of the instruction of children in the hands of persons almost wholly lacking in education.

Only ten years ago it was possible to secure a license to teach in elementary schools in New Jersey and Connecticut with six weeks of professional training in a summer school following high-school graduation. New York State closed its high-school training classes only three years ago. At present, four years of collegiate professional preparation represents the minimum requirement for certification to teach in elementary schools in New Jersey and Connecticut, and the present minimum requirement in New York State is three years.

Unfortunately, most of the states have not progressed at the same rate as the three just mentioned.

Another factor which has contributed to the determination of our supervisory pattern is that of the brief tenure of teachers in the profession. In 1921, it was estimated by a research committee appointed by the National Education Association that on the average teachers remained in teaching in this country fewer than five years. Obviously, that was too short a time in which to develop any high degree of professional consciousness on the part of the teaching profession.

This situation has changed greatly during the past ten or fifteen years. In several of the states the average experience of the

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public-school teachers is in excess of fifteen years. For the entire country it probably is in excess of ten years.

Clearly, teaching is approaching a professional level in respect to requirements for licensing and tenure in the profession. In many states the teachers of today are better prepared than were the supervisors of ten years ago. Clearly, the administrative and supervisory organization and practices which were appropriate and necessary for an uneducated and transient teaching staff are not appropriate for a well educated, professionally trained, and permanent teaching staff.

It should have been clear that supervision was a temporary and unsatisfactory, but necessary expedient provided by society to serve until well-qualified teachers could be supplied to staff our schools. This has not been recognized. Instead, there has grown up in our educational system a permanent administrative and supervisory hierarchy with strong vested interests, intent upon maintaining themselves in office for the benefit of themselves, regardless of the fact that the conditions which once made their positions necessary are rapidly disappearing.

Undoubtedly, since the public schools are supported out of public funds, they belong to the public, and the public is entitled to exercise a considerable measure of control over them. For example, we cannot expect the public to pay the bill for public education without having a right to decide how much that bill is to be.

On certain other matters, however, over which local, lay boards now exercise control, there is considerable doubt as to their fitness. School boards employ superintendents of schools. It is true that they were elected by the people, or appointed by the mayor, to represent the public in matters educational, but just where did they get their qualifications for selecting a superintendent of schools? Local boards employ teachers, sometimes upon the nomination of the superintendent of schools, sometimes with-

out consulting him. Local boards determine which teachers are to be retained and which ones are to be discharged. Where did they get their qualifications for reaching such important decisions?

In rural New York the district trustee, usually a farmer, and sometimes an illiterate one, appoints the teacher for the one-room rural school. There are about six thousand of these district trustees in New York State, appointing six thousand rural teachers.

What qualifications do they have for discharging this highly important responsibility? They are not qualified—but they have the authority.

Some of them make it a very profitable undertaking, by making the teacher pay from one hundred to two hundred dollars for her one-thousand-dollar contract, and requiring her to obtain her board and lodging in the home of the trustee, paying at least twice what she would have to pay if she were free to select her own living accommodations.

The writer has excellent reasons for asserting that this practice is not confined to a few crooked trustees. When such a statement, made before an audience of several hundred rural New York State teachers recently, was challenged by the chairman of the meeting, the writer requested members of the audience to raise their hands if they had first-hand information of such practices. More than one-half of those present raised their hands.

In certain communities in another state, located in the so-called "Bible Belt," teachers must belong to the Baptist Church or the Methodist Church South in order to be considered for appointment. Furthermore, the superintendent of schools notifies them of the amount which they must contribute to the church, and requires them to pay by check in order that there may be no doubt about the payment. In labor circles such practices are known as the kickback racket. In educational circles they are not confined

to rural New York and the "Bible Belt."

What should be done about these matters? Admittedly, constructive, workable solutions are not easy to find. Nor will it be easy to bring about their acceptance once the solutions are found. The proposals here offered are put forth in the belief that they are fundamentally sound, that they represent directions in which we almost surely must move, and that over a period of time they can be placed in successful operation.

1. Our schools must be changed from authoritarian schools to truth-seeking schools, from teacher-dominated schools to child-centered schools. Our textbook-dominated schools, once so necessary because of the ignorance of our teachers, can and must now be superseded by schools in which a library method predominates. The pupil must be encouraged to question statements, to compare conflicting viewpoints, and to arrive at independent judgments, utilizing a variety of sources, including current literature, and first-hand observation and experience.

2. All professional appointments, promotions, and dismissals should be made upon recommendation of a personnel committee made up of staff members elected by the teaching staff. The writer is convinced that such a policy is defensible, assuming only that there is an expert, professionally-minded teaching staff.

In large areas of the country the preparation of teachers has now reached a professional level. Professional-mindedness on their part, however, can scarcely be hoped for under prevailing restrictive administrative and supervisory practices.

The effect of the change recommended in this section would be to free teachers from fear of dismissal for reasons connected with politics, religious and racial prejudice, the incurring of administrative disfavor, and the offending of board members, their wives, or their friends. It would make teachers responsible to their own profession, which would develop its own code of pro-

fessional ethics to which its members would be expected to subscribe. Tenure and academic freedom would be safe in these hands.

3. Administrative and supervisory appointments in education should be made for a definite term of years. The person receiving such an appointment should not be eligible for reappointment. At the expiration of his term of service he should return to a teaching post in which his tenure would be secure.

The salary should be only slightly greater for the administrative than for the teaching posts: just enough to provide some slight compensation for giving up temporarily one's teaching duties, and enough to provide for the extra calls for contributions to community enterprises which the temporary "head man" would be called upon to make. The length of the term of service in the administrative post should vary with the importance of the post, probably ranging from one to two years for department chairmanships, from two to three years for principalships, and from five to six years for large-city superintendencies and university presidencies.

There are a number of objections which are sure to be made relative to this proposal. One is that not all persons have the personal qualities essential to success in an administrative position. One must admit this, and state that the plan proposed is not one of rotation, but rather one of careful selection.

Furthermore, not nearly all of the men and women who spend many years in administrative positions have the personal qualities essential to successful administration. Again, people change as they grow older, and many persons who were fitted for administration at the time they first undertook it become wholly unfitted long before death or retirement mercifully removes them from the scene.

We all know too many cases in which an administrator has overstayed his time. We all know far too many administrators who have sacrificed educational interests in order

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to maintain themselves in office. Many administrators admit this frankly.

Another objection is that the plan proposed would result in placing persons in administrative posts without specific administrative training. In the judgment of the writer, this objection is not very important. How many successful university presidents never had a course in the administration of higher education? How many never had a course in educational administration? How many never even had a course in education?

The writer does not know the answers to these questions, but he is convinced that there are enough successful administrators who entered upon their work without specific preparation in administration to cast considerable doubt upon the necessity for such training. The writer is convinced, however, that it would be an excellent idea for a person to take such a course at the time of beginning his administrative duties.

In the working out of this plan the administrator would be less powerful than he now is, in his relations to the staff. At the same time, he would be less circumscribed than he now is, and much more independent.

He would enter upon his administrative tour of duty with the realization that he had been selected by his colleagues because of their confidence in him. He would undertake the arduous duties of administration at that period in his life when he was most efficient physically and mentally. He would know that he would be expected to give his best thought and effort, without hampering restrictions, and without the constant fear of dismissal which haunts many administrators under present conditions.

4. Supervision, as we know it today, should cease after the teacher has served an apprenticeship period, or a probationary period, of perhaps three years. During that apprenticeship period the supervision should be largely in the hands of classroom

teachers, or of teachers temporarily detailed to supervisory duty, who would serve as helping teachers, or counsellors, to the apprentice.

This service would be supplemented by professional adjustment service supplied by staff members of the institution which prepared the young teacher. Legitimate functions now carried on by supervisors would be discharged by appropriate committees of the professional staff. It is the belief of the writer that a true profession supervises itself. If it is not capable of doing this it is not worthy of being called a profession.

The attempt has been made to present the need for, and proposals looking toward, the establishment of a democratic and a professional pattern for the organization of the educational enterprise. In presenting it, the writer does not wish to be understood as being critical of administrators and supervisors. He is aware of the fact that they are, for the most part, honest, hard-working, and capable persons. They are not responsible for the present situation, which is being criticised. That was a matter of social development.

It is only natural to expect that many administrators would be opposed to such changes as are recommended in this paper, for financial reasons and reasons of personal prestige. One administrator expressed to the writer a reaction which probably would be typical when he said, "I really am in favor of the proposal, and would like to see it adopted, except that I do not see how my family would be able to live on a teacher's salary."

The major responsibility for effecting the necessary changes must rest with a highly qualified, strongly organized body of teachers who will be able to formulate their objectives clearly, interpret them to the public, and work for them unitedly, utilizing those means for their accomplishment which are available to a responsible, sincere group of professional people.

## 21 Teachers of Wichita, Kan., Comment on Dr. Lloyd N. Morrisett's Article

# The CURRICULUM and LIFE

Edited by J. E. STINSON

THE FOLLOWING paragraphs are copies of parts of comments by the teachers of our school upon the article by Lloyd N. Morrisett, "The Curriculum and Life," which appeared in the September issue of THE CLEARING HOUSE.

J. E. STINSON, Principal  
Allison Intermediate School  
Wichita, Kansas

That the school should meet changing needs is a recognized fact, but more is being done than Doctor Morrisett's article gave credit for. The boy whose letter was quoted is a member of the large group which does not choose a specialty or look for definite personal aids. The boy admits certain good qualities and results, but in looking for work he did not apply his high-school training.

The trouble lies in failure to recognize the great importance of seemingly unimportant matters. Graduation in school

makes it possible to present problems all along through the grades. The fact is, many a situation, once solved, seems so easy that it is promptly forgotten until it is time to apply that knowledge. Educators cannot hope to provide experience in all matters of judgment; therefore, education seems superficial; yet in all its weaknesses it can help students to grasp the scheme of social changes so they can adjust to the state in which they live.

Many of the thoughts and principles in this article are not new to the teacher of experience. We have accepted the basic principle of secondary education, that it shall change and better the individual pupil. His welfare, growth, and future economic security, character, citizenship, and ability to make the best of his environment are the primary concerns of our schools today.

Since the majority of high-school students do not enter college, the secondary-school curriculum must be closely related to life and those experiences which help to understand human relationships.

I feel that, on the whole, the classroom teacher is only too eager to fall in line with the philosophy expressed in the article, "The Curriculum and Life." But certain things stand in the way of carrying out such a program. The public will have to be convinced of the soundness of such a move, as well as the more conservative element in the field of education itself. Every teacher

EDITOR'S NOTE: In a great many schools, and in fact in many entire city school systems, every teacher who had not already done so was requested to read "The Curriculum and Life," by Dr. Lloyd N. Morrisett, in the September issue of THE CLEARING HOUSE. Mimeographed copies of the article were distributed, in many cases, to facilitate its study. Mr. Stinson asked his teachers to write their reactions to the article. Here are twenty-one of their opinions, which he shortened and edited for publication.

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should realize that it is her privilege and duty to try to "sell" such an idea to both groups.

This will take time. Meanwhile, I should like to see the teacher feel that she is not bound by the very letter of her course of study, but that she may modify or supplement her work whenever she feels that she can give something of greater benefit to the child. Particularly, should I lay stress on personality development and adjustment.

Since our natural tendencies are toward the socialization of all studies, and since we are attempting to fit them into life situations where possible, the article, "The Curriculum and Life," did little to bring us light.

I was particularly impressed with the author's stressing of the point that it was useless for us to take the attitude that we are doing college preparatory work for high-school or intermediate pupils, because that work is to be for the comparatively few students. It is our job, apparently then, to fit them adequately to meet common everyday needs with as great an amount of "appreciations" as possible.

No doubt the John Jones in Mr. Morrisett's article, and all the other Johns and Mamies, have cause enough to complain of the high-school curriculum's not fitting them for real-life problems, and I trust the day is not far off when the much needed changes will be made. Surely the big issues, which can so easily break a life, should be carefully handled, in all their phases, by sympathetic, understanding teachers—yet we turn thousands of young people out in the world every year without even touching these vital questions.

I think the "five aims" listed are excellent. But in order to accomplish all of this I believe we must hold firmly to much of the present curriculum, for we do not want the Johns and Mamies of the future to cen-

sure us for taking from the curriculum the very things that would enable them to live more deeply and fully.

John must also remember that it was very difficult to tell him and Mamie anything when they were young. They were quite sufficient unto themselves. Who could have told them that life offered any problems which they would find difficult? The Johns and Mamies have not changed much in this new curriculum. We must plan first to convince them that life holds some problems. Then we might possibly prepare them to face these problems.

While I do not feel that all failures of high-school graduates are to be laid at the door of the school, certainly there is a need for vitalization of educational curriculums. Stale facts which have little or no bearing upon real-life situations can be of little use to future citizens of our nation and of our local communities. Students are keen enough to realize this fact, and they resent having useless materials thrust at them to be learned. Students appreciate being taken into the confidence of their instructor. The children like to have a part in the planning of materials to be studied, skills to be gained, and attitudes to be acquired. The amazing thing to me is that they do such a good job of selecting.

I would suggest that more pupil-participation in planning the curriculum, with the aid of teachers who are far-seeing and not tradition-bound in this matter of educating, might vitalize our entire educational program. Then education may realize a pretentious ambition—that of being an adequate insurance against bankruptcy in the business of living.

It is true the curriculum does need adjusting to include the problems one meets in life, but too much is expected of the schools. Many of the things taught in schools are things that should have been

learned at home. Parents have shifted too much responsibility of their children on the schools. Classes should be smaller to give the teacher more time for individuals, field trips, study of the situations to-day and correlation of work with other subjects. In Doctor Morrisett's article I think that John Jones was partly at fault.

This young writer of the letter in "The Curriculum and Life," I think, is a sad misfit who attempts to excuse himself. There is some truth in his remarks. "Essays seem to be confined to educational institutions"—this is not true!

If we are going to teach students to think, we must plan to have them work and think together on concrete things; they cannot sit passively in their seats and work with abstract ideas only.

1. The school must hold itself aloof from "entangling alliances."
2. It can set up no social or economic system, but must interpret the times.
3. Education must be realistic; not mildly sentimental nor unduly hard. It must be sane.

Since we are rather closely tied to the old course of study, I think the thing we can do is to use all the extra-curricular activities, including the homeroom, to teach all the things time will permit that might better prepare the child for life.

Since there is little probability of a change in the curriculum, it seems to me that all we can do about it is to plan our courses with enough elasticity in them to fit the individual needs of the pupils in our classes.

Probably the best thing we can do as teachers is to take the subject matter of the present curriculum, with the set-up and organization as we have it, and devote less

time to teaching set facts and put more emphasis on teaching how to think; how to meet a new situation; how to evaluate the factors in a situation and come to a decision about what is the best thing to do.

There should be more correlation of subjects—such as civics and mathematics, or english, art, and history. We need more teachers who are able to teach these subjects interchangeably.

The discussion of life problems depends very largely on the teacher. Civics teachers have been given a greater opportunity to make these problems vital than teachers bound down by many requirements in their courses.

The aims stated by Doctor Morrisett are the accepted aims of the present-day school, but they fail of achievement because of the rapid changes of social conditions. Schools are not at fault as to aims, but more satisfactory results must come through changes in administration.

As for English, the need for correct grammatical construction is as great now as ever; classics are still valuable; but they might be approached differently. Will not modernized texts and material solve this problem? What about large classes? How can satisfactory progress be made when each teacher is so burdened?

It seems to me that what we need is to have students take more responsibility—with too often little help if not opposition from parents. Work should be presented to classes in such a manner that it can be used in life even though the outline cannot be followed strictly.

I suggest we have someone in each building very similar to our visiting teacher who can give interviews with individual students and occasionally meet with groups of stu-



dents to give lectures on how to develop personality and also on family relationships, etc. I'm heartily in sympathy with Doctor Morrisett's article in *THE CLEARING HOUSE*.

. . . . .

I feel the schools will change somewhat. I wonder if all of life's problems can be untangled at school. What will the child actually learn before real experience takes place? Is the man who wrote the letter to his former principal in Doctor Morrisett's article now teaching his own children the facts and problems of life? Or will he?

. . . . .

It seems to me that there are two outstanding problems to be met in any attempt to remake our curriculum to include life situations. In the first place, how many teachers have a sufficient knowledge of actual life situations to enable them to carry on such a program? This does not necessarily reflect on the teacher, but on the preparation available in our Teachers Colleges and Universities. The problem is further complicated by the fact that our teaching population is so changing that a long-time program of curriculum building is almost impossible.

The second difficulty is the attitude of people of the community toward a curriculum of this nature. "Organized interests" too often do not want certain problems discussed, and bring pressure against any such attempt.

. . . . .

Teachers do try to relate subject matter to life situations. We need better equipment, such as laboratories, picture machines, reference books, etc. Then these desirable objectives could be more fully realized: experiments made, skills acquired, attitudes developed, etc.

Subjects it would be desirable to add: budgeting, insurance, courtesy and grace, more manual arts (skilled workers are in demand), how to make money work to earn more money, how to detect shoddy goods, dramatics, public speaking, voice culture.

. . . . .

It seems to me that the writer of the letter in "The Curriculum and Life" has exaggerated the condition found in the average school.

While we are waiting the changes in the curriculum, which must be slow, the responsibility lies with the teachers. They should have more social and business contacts than most of them do have. And with the teachers trained to see the situation and need for this change in the schools, it will take place.

. . . . .

The writer of the letter in Doctor Morrisett's article is correct in his criticism of the curriculum. I believe the fault is as much, if not more, with the public rather than with the teachers. The public as a whole is not working with the educational profession to revise the curriculum. There are many more things we as instructors could do with our limited equipment to aid the boys and girls for the future, if we only dared to convince the public.

# TESTING *and* GUIDANCE

The five stages of present-day guidance in secondary schools

By  
RICHARD D. ALLEN

A PROGRAM of guidance testing usually passes through three stages. The first is a promotional stage which involves acquainting administrators with the nature and value of new-type tests, and an attempt on the part of the school administrators to arouse the interest and insure the coöperation of the supervisory staff and the teachers who must administer the tests and utilize the results.

The second stage is usually classified as research. It involves thorough experimentation with the test materials and methods, and attempts to insure the proper use of test results by the persons most concerned in instruction and supervision.

During this period the results are compared with those in other localities, magazine articles appear describing the results from the point of view of research, and administrators who are interested in the scientific aspects of education take great pride in



EDITOR'S NOTE: *Our readers will be interested in checking the exact point their own schools have reached in the evolution of guidance. There are five stages through which guidance has developed, and each is described in this article. Guidance in most high schools is still in one of the more or less primitive stages. There are also three stages in the development of guidance testing—and many schools haven't yet reached the first stage! The author is former president of the National Vocational Guidance Association, and is now assistant superintendent of schools in Providence, Rhode Island, and director of guidance.*

the results. This stage is necessary to the development of a testing program, but during this stage the pupil body, as a whole, receives little direct benefit.

This is not the fault of the tests but of the natural "lag" between the ideals of test makers and school administrators on the one hand and the ability of teachers to utilize the methods and materials on the other.

The third stage has been reached when a guidance testing program is no longer "a nine days' wonder"—when the testing instruments have ceased to be charged to "research" in the budget of the central office and have become "instructional materials" charged to the budgets of the separate schools. By then the testing procedures and records have been incorporated as an integral part of the administration, supervision and instruction of the school.

This stage has been reached in very few schools and school systems, but until it has been reached and continued for a reasonable period of time it is evident that the ideals of a testing program have not been realized.

In the Providence schools, guidance testing programs in all of the elementary and junior-high-school grades have been a regular part of the school work for the past ten years, and in the senior high schools for the past six years. Research is only an incidental by-product, rather than a main objective.

In only the last two years, however, have test results been incorporated as an integral part of the school record of each child. This means more than devoting space on the record to test marks: it means providing a

real record of growth and using it as a basis for pupil adjustment and guidance. It is unsafe and unscientific to predict results on any other basis than that of a *growth curve*.

One of the most urgent and fundamental needs of all schools is that the usual administrative records, which are at present well-nigh worthless for guidance purposes, be transformed into scientific instruments for the continuous study of the individual differences of children, and that provision be made for an organized program of counseling so that these records may be intelligently used for the educational, vocational, and social adjustment of young people.

No matter how perfect a system of personnel records may be, the time and labor involved will be largely wasted unless a guidance organization has been created that is capable of using them intelligently. For this reason it may be helpful if we consider the five stages of organized guidance in order that we may perceive tendencies and locate more accurately both our present position and the general direction in which we are traveling.

A study of almost any of the recent books on guidance in secondary schools, or of the development of guidance in any well organized system, will show the five stages in the development of the work:

*In the first stage* provision is made for the guidance and adjustment of problem pupils at critical periods in their school careers. Such guidance and adjustment is the chief function of the principal of the school or of his various administrative assistants. It is guidance which is necessary or incidental to the administration of the school. For one reason or another the problems of the pupils interfere with the smooth running of the machinery of the school: disciplinary problems, failures, and drop-outs at one end of the scale, and college certification, honor students, and leaders in various activities at the other end of the scale. These problems demand the attention of the principal, assistant principal, counselor, or dean. The

majority of the pupils, the middle sixty to eighty per cent, receives little individual attention. Most high schools are still in this stage of development in their guidance programs.

*The second stage* has come about by a better understanding concerning the principles and functions of guidance. In this stage guidance functions are delegated to homeroom and subject teachers. The subject teachers perform the functions of guidance which are incidental to effective subject motivation and the study of individual differences and needs. The homeroom teachers attempt to take a personal interest in each pupil and to perform guidance functions that are incidental to the administrative work of the homeroom.

Such guidance, however, includes only those services which can be effectively performed by any *unselected* and *untrained* teacher, as a regular part of his or her instructional or administrative duties. If algebra or a foreign language were thus taught, as incidental to other functions, we should have no definite responsibility and little to show in the way of results.

*The third stage* of development indicates an appreciation on the part of educators concerning the importance of the scientific study of individual differences as a basis for the adjustment of education to individual needs, interests, abilities, and prospects. Beginning with the use of intelligence tests as measurements of scholastic ability apart from actual school work, the scientific study of individual differences now includes the measurement of achievements, interests, aptitudes, personality, attitudes, and adjustment.

The skillful administration and intelligent use of these scientific instruments require specially selected and trained persons who may specialize in this field of work. Any guidance that is worthy of the name must be based upon data of an objective nature and must be used by trained people. The development of specialized guidance

departments in secondary schools has occurred in only a very few localities.

The fourth stage of guidance involves a thoroughgoing reorganization of the school program and curriculum. It implies the abolition of *mass diagnosis* and *mass prescription* and its replacement by individual diagnosis and treatment.

The present courses in secondary schools are designed to meet the needs of hypothetical groups. Nevertheless they are an improvement over the required classical curriculum of an earlier generation. And they are still necessary if no guidance organization exists through which individual diagnosis and treatment are possible.

Such courses are much like the old patent medicines which were designed to meet group ills. Each person, though he lacked both the information and the training necessary to select a prescription among the few possible alternatives, was expected to diagnose his own troubles and select a remedy. Such decisions are often forced upon young pupils before they have either the information or the experience that is necessary for a wise decision. Often the parents are quite as helpless as the children.

The results of such mistakes may be seen in the high percentage of failures; the low level of interest, enthusiasm, and initiative; the "gentlemen's marks" in scholastic achievement; and problems of discipline, truancy, rebellion, and many other ills which beset our secondary school system.

For years we have treated the symptoms without any thorough scientific attempt to discover and cure the causes. It is too much to hope for any general improvement of such conditions until school superintendents, principals, and college authorities are willing to go to the bottom of the trouble and develop the necessary machinery and personnel for an adequate guidance program with specially selected and trained counselors.

In the fifth step we find group guidance a regular part of the curriculum. Even with

all available tests and counseling instruments, and with untrained counselors for the work, and an adequate time allotment for individual interviews—even with twenty times as great an allotment as any now in existence, there would still be left much to be desired in an organized program of guidance.

True guidance must be a training for self-guidance. And any adequate program of self-guidance requires much more time and expense than can be provided by a few occasional interviews during a child's secondary-school career.

To draw a parallel, it is fair to ask how well a secondary-school child could be trained to solve his problems in beginning algebra as a result of six routine interviews—one each term, throughout the junior high school grades, or even with a double portion of such interviews for good measure. Twelve half-hour interviews appear meagre in comparison with the one hundred and eighty periods usually provided in the ninth grade for algebra.

It is fair to ask which is the more difficult task—the training of a pupil to solve his algebra problems for college entrance, or the training to solve his problems involving educational, occupational, and social choices. He should be able to solve these sufficiently well to insure a reasonable measure of success in meeting the problems which he is sure to encounter during his secondary school and college years. And especially is this true during the period of adjustment in employment which immediately follows.

There can be no comparison between the difficulty of the two tasks. Present-day educators may seem very ridiculous to future generations for assigning one hundred eighty hours to algebra work, and attempting to give the pupil guidance in a few brief interviews. If we could provide a fifteen minute interview every day for a year it would take three years to equal the amount of time spent upon algebra in one year. But

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even such a program would be expensive and inefficient, provided it were possible.

The obvious thing to do is to separate the problems that are common for the large majority of students from those which are peculiar to each individual, and to deal with common problems in a group-guidance curriculum by means of class instruction.

This procedure would save much of the time which must otherwise be devoted to individual interviews. Group problems can be dealt with very effectively on an impersonal basis through group-counseling techniques. In fact they can be handled more effectively by group instruction than by interviews.

Problems that are peculiar to each individual will naturally require individual attention. Sufficient time for such individual work can be obtained only through economies effected by the group-guidance program. One special advantage of the group-guidance attack is that it need not increase costs.

It is evident that when a new gymnasium teacher is added to the faculty and health work is provided in the regular curriculum, the adjustment is made through a rearrangement of the time schedule of pupils and the teaching schedule of the faculty. Pupils may then pursue some studies for four periods instead of five each week, or they may have fewer study periods. The actual number of members of the faculty may still remain the same, since the changes in the program and curriculum absorb the cost.

To look at the program in reverse, if the present group-guidance course were eliminated from the Providence junior-high-school system, the pupils would have to have more study periods, or more English or algebra. The cost would be the same.

In fact, it is entirely possible for a principal to introduce such a guidance organization without a material increase in school costs. Under no circumstance would the cost be greater than that represented by the ad-

dition of one pupil per class-section in all subjects. Usually teachers do not object to such an increase, if they receive assistance in problem cases from a counselor who understands each child.

Moreover, the more scientific grouping of children for instructional purposes prevents many failures and greatly facilitates both individual and group instruction in all subjects. Eventually education may cease gradually to be an aimless competitive struggle for survival, and become a conscious individual effort toward a definite goal.

At present the chief obstacle to the development of group-guidance programs is a lack of understanding on the part of school administrators. Testing is regarded as the function of the research department rather than as a method of collecting all obtainable data to serve as a basis for the counseling and adjustment of pupils.

Counseling is still regarded as the kind of work that the principal formerly carried on; the administrative adjustment of problem pupils at critical periods in their careers, or the type of friendly personal interest and advice which experienced subject teachers and homeroom teachers can pass out to young people. They do not see that individual counseling must be based upon personnel records, and that from the common problems discovered through the interviews there must be developed the basic units of the group-guidance course.

They do not yet appreciate the importance of the group-guidance course as a means of continuous contact between counselors and students over the entire period of their school life in order that the counselors may not only record the pupils' growth in school subjects, but also observe and record growth in personality, interests, activities, ambitions, and objectives.

Most important of all, administrators have failed to see the essential similarity between the techniques of individual guidance and of group guidance. Both are essentially *instructional techniques* rather

than *administrative decisions*. They do not involve solving problems for children or for their parents, but rather presenting problems to pupils and parents for their own solution, and helping to accumulate and study the necessary data upon which satisfactory solutions must be based.

These data include a continuous growth record of every child throughout his entire school course; not only records of mental growth as shown by intelligence tests, but also records of educational growth in all of the subjects of instruction, records of growth in personality, interests both inside and outside of school, and records of activities as well—the kinds of facts that are recorded on the forms of the Educational Records Bureau, as a basis for counseling.

These data also include the facts about occupations, the employments of the people in the community, the necessary requirements, training, and other features which trained counselors are stressing every day in the study of occupational units in the group-guidance course.

It is only by building such a foundation of knowledge of educational and occupational problems and of individual differences that we can improve the wisdom of choices and the solution of personnel problems.

The emphasis upon testing and the keeping of records may tend to alarm some counselors as well as some principals and superintendents. There is danger that they may follow the example of the teacher who, in desperation, cried out, "Stop testing and let me teach."

In this desperate situation, however, there is hope ahead. New type tests of the very near future will be broken up into convenient units so that it will not be necessary to alter the school program in order to admin-

ister them. Each test may be taken during the regular school period and may not even be announced in advance. Moreover, it need not be followed by hours of burning the midnight oil by the tired teacher after the day's work is done.

There is a new mechanical servant to relieve the teacher of all of the drudgery of test correction. It is now already possible for the tests of fifty pupils to be corrected in five minutes and returned to the pupils even before they leave the classroom. In fact, each pupil can drop his own test in the machine and read the answer.

This machine can be used on any multiple-choice test. It is even possible to give each question a definite weight.

Last spring the machine had a thorough tryout in the Providence schools, on correcting the tests of candidates for teaching positions, most of the Coöperative tests in grades 9 to 12, and the Iowa Test of Basic Study Skills in grades 7 to 9. This machine will be on the market very shortly, and should soon be used as a common facility in every school much as a cash register is available in every store or even on every counter.

Incidentally, the machine saves its own cost since the same test may be used in many class sections and then filed away for future use as permanent laboratory equipment.

Enough money was saved in the cost of the testing program last term to pay for the use of the machine for the next two years. With such a machine available, instead of testing each pupil every year, it will be possible to test every term or even every quarter. This can be a comprehensive test, to say nothing of shorter tests whenever a unit of instruction has been completed.

With such a machine, testing will no longer hold any terrors for the conscientious teacher or counselor.

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# BOY TRAMPS *of the* ROAD:

## *A Further Statement*

By GEORGE E. OUTLAND

IN THE November 1936 number of THE CLEARING HOUSE appeared an interesting article by Professor Minehan concerning the present status of America's army of wandering boy and girl "tramps." The writer, having been engaged in working with transient boys for two years, and in research work on the migrant boy problem for another year, would like to add some comments of his own to the conclusions drawn by Doctor Minehan.

In the first place, the number of young "hoboes" on the road at the peak of youthful wandering and at the present time is problematical.

While it is true that the estimate was made by several writers that there were approximately a quarter of a million boys and girls under 21 years of age roaming the country during 1932 and 1933, there has never been any verification of this estimate, so far as the writer knows. In fact, all of the statistics presented by the Federal Transient Service would seem to indicate that all estimates made on the number of

transients in the period from 1930 to 1933 were unusually high.

Mr. John Webb, of the Division of Social Research, Works Progress Administration, makes the following assertion in regard to this point:

Prior to the inauguration of the Transient Relief Program in July 1933, little was actually known of the number of needy homeless, resident or transient, despite the widespread concern over this group. However, there was no lack of estimates. . . . These estimates placed the number of needy homeless at one and one-half to five million persons. The Transient Relief Program had been in operation only a short time when it was discovered that these estimates greatly overstated the size of the transient homeless population. . . . Judging from the number of transients who received care under the transient program, the number never exceeded one-half million.<sup>1</sup>

Regarding the number of boys, Mr. Webb states that:

The emphasis on the number of boys on the road was a compound of sentiment and propaganda.<sup>2</sup>

In fact, his study showed that in none of the thirteen cities where the research division concentrated its work, did the per cent of boys ever exceed 20 for the group as a whole,<sup>3</sup> while the best available estimate on this point seems to be that 17 per cent of the total transient group was under 21 years of age.

This would seem to indicate that the total number of transient boys on the road during the peak years did not exceed 100,000

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EDITOR'S NOTE: *Thomas Minehan's article, "Boy and Girl Tramps of the Road," in the November issue, created a great deal of interest on the part of our readers. In this article, Mr. Outland, of the Department of Education, Yale University Graduate School, New Haven, Connecticut, questions a few of Doctor Minehan's findings and conclusions, agrees with many of them, and offers further discussion of the educational needs of our youthful vagrants.*

<sup>1</sup> John N. Webb, *The Transient Unemployed*, Works Progress Administration, Division of Social Research, Monograph III, Washington, 1935, p. 12.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 16-17.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 25.

at most, or considerably less than half the number mentioned by Doctor Minehan.

The writer would also like to comment upon the statement that "On the whole they lacked education." Doctor Minehan pointed out that the 500 cases studied by him showed an average education of less than the eighth grade. Of 5,000 boys registering at the Los Angeles Central Intake Bureau of the Federal Transient Service between December 12, 1933, and July 28, 1934, the average grade reached was 9.09, while it was discovered that 58.9 per cent of the group had had at least a ninth grade education.<sup>4</sup>

Random studies throughout the country on transient boys would seem to indicate that the Los Angeles group were better educated than the group as a whole, but the average was in practically all cases between eight and one half and nine years of formal schooling.

The Los Angeles study was continued until November 21, 1934, at which time 10,000 cases were available, and the average grade reached had risen to 9.16, and the percentage of boys having at least a ninth-grade schooling had risen to an even 60. Practically 18 per cent of this group were high-school graduates, while 203 out of the 10,000 had had at least one full year of college or university work.<sup>5</sup> In view of these figures, this writer could not say that "On the whole they lacked education."

Dr. Minehan found also that his group had had little recreational background, had not participated in athletic or social groups, or in church and school activities. The writer made a very brief survey of the recreational backgrounds of 347 boys in the camps and lodges of the Boys Welfare Department of Southern California on one particular day in August 1935, and found that all but

27 of these had participated in at least one major form of group recreation, while 70.6 per cent had participated in two types.<sup>6</sup> The number that had been active in athletics, in church clubs, and in boy scout groups was especially large. In view of the findings of this project, it was concluded that:

America's army of wandering boys is made up of lads with what might be termed normal recreational backgrounds. These young migrants have been active participants in athletics, in church groups, in musical organizations, in boys clubs, and in those other fields of group recreational activity which are the heritage of all American boys.<sup>7</sup>

Doctor Minehan's statement that "The transient camps, however, during the brief time when they were in existence, seemed to aggravate the problem rather than allay it" is open to considerable question.

It is doubtless true that some boys left home because they had heard how easy it was "to get by" in Federal camps, and that some stayed on the road who might otherwise have returned to their homes. However, it is probably true also that the Transient Service, in returning thousands of young wanderers to their legal residence, in assisting many to find work, and in helping to locate lost parents and relatives, at least offset the number it lured from home!

Transient Service came into existence as a result of a problem. It did not create that problem. And the fact that the numbers on the road were already rapidly diminishing before the liquidation of the Federal transient program could certainly be taken as an indication that that program was helping to reduce rather than aggravate the problem. Certain it is that the Federal Transient Service provided food, shelter and clothing, and in many cases friendly advice and counsel to thousands of boys who otherwise might have come into contact with crime, or have been beggars or a burden on private local charities.

<sup>4</sup> George E. Outland, "The Education of Transient Boys," *School and Society*, XL, (October 13, 1934), pp. 501-504.

<sup>5</sup> George E. Outland, "The Educational Background of Migrant Boys," *The School Review*, XLIII, 9, November 1935, pp. 683-689.

<sup>6</sup> George E. Outland and H. M. Eads, "The Recreational Background of Our Transient Boys," *Recreation*, XXX, 1, April 1936, pp. 33-34.

<sup>7</sup> *Ibid*, p. 46.



Numerous mistakes were made in the organization and administration of the Service, but it was decidedly a forward step in caring for homeless wanderers.

The writer would like to second heartily Doctor Minehan's suggestion that one much needed remedy is an opportunity whereby young people may travel legitimately. The system of hostels suggested by him would certainly be one step in the right direction—although, as he has pointed out, some cash would be needed, and the majority of boys and girls on the road have come from the poorer homes.

His suggestion regarding more trips under school auspices probably would not help much in alleviating the problem of the wandering youth. These boys and girls in most cases do not go on the road until after they have dropped out of school. And moreover, unless such trips were conducted differently than those which this writer has seen, they would not be very popular.

Might it not be possible to organize in this country a system of camps, combining the best in the experience of the CCC and the transient camps, whereby a boy out of school might work his way from one section of the country to another?

Such a camp program would necessitate several things at the outset. There should be a limitation of enrollment to those who had already profited to an optimum degree in the school system (or who were enrolling for vacation months only). A definite work program of real value to the nation should be planned for this experiment. And a co-operative arrangement would be needed with the railroads, whereby there would be granted extremely cheap partial-rate tickets to camp enrollees.

Doctor Minehan's point regarding the advisability of financial assistance for worthy students is also well taken, and, of course, the first step in that direction appears to be under way already through the National Youth Administration. His hope that perhaps the time will come when a system of

state scholarships for students who can profit by them is established is well put.

One further educational implication of youth wandering in this country, which is too big to discuss at length here, but which the writer would like to mention, is that raised by the social environment of the homes from which come a great proportion of youthful migrants.

The number of homes broken by death or divorce or desertion is very high indeed among this group. While it would be a bold person who would state that all teachers should be social workers, it does seem that training in principles of casework would benefit all future elementary- and secondary-school teachers. This seems advisable even though the school may have its "social worker," and even though the teacher is overwhelmed with numbers to the extent that she has very little time for the problems of the individual pupil.

The teacher that understands the home situations from which her pupils come is certainly in a better position to help them learn than is the one who is not. In a study which the writer is making at the present time concerning the causes of boy transiency, he has found a number of cases where boys have quit school, and eventually have taken to the road, where a better knowledge on the part of the teacher of the boy's personal problems (and a few minutes for counsel!) probably would have kept the boy in school and at home.

As business conditions improve the number of youthful wanderers will decrease.

But as the problem decreases we should not become blind to the needs of those that are still on the road. We must realize the necessity of providing adequate relief and institutional care where needed. And we should not neglect the opportunity to profit by the lessons learned in attempting to cope with the transient problem, not the least of which is the advisability, nay the necessity of maintaining a Federal program for this interstate problem.

# LEADERSHIP

The Northampton  
Schools' Program

## CAN BE TAUGHT

By  
G. A. EICHLER

ONE OF THE greatest needs of the present generation is better leadership. The present chaotic condition of affairs, economic, social, and moral, is proof of the fact that as a nation we have had inefficient leaders in the immediate past.

It is true that every war has been followed by a period of unrest and reconstruction, but it is inconceivable that as a nation we could have drifted so close to the brink of social and economic disaster, had any kind of effective leadership been available. We seem to lack adequate social leadership to use the revelations of a scientific age for the general welfare of all our people.

If we are to have a truly democratic form of living, we must develop better leadership among our people. There is a great demand for effective leadership on every level of our complex social and economic structure.

There are not enough natural born leaders to man the situation. We must seriously set to work to develop a far larger propor-

tion of our population who will be able to lead efficiently toward socially desirable ends.

But someone will object that not all can be leaders; that there must be followers, and that it is quite as important to train good followers as good leaders. With this objection we cannot agree, as it is not true that one person is a leader at all times and another person is a follower in all situations. The fact of the matter is that most persons are both leaders and followers. They lead in one situation and follow in another. Therefore, it is important for all persons to know the technique of leadership.

We will agree that it is important to train followers, and this is at least partly accomplished in training for leadership. When we give people training in the technique of leadership we give them ability to select intelligent leaders when they are in the role of followers. This is one of the greatest needs of the day—the ability on the part of the mass of our people to select good leaders for positions of responsibility in present-day social, economic, and political life.

Far too often we are compelled to witness the election to public office of persons in no way capable of discharging efficiently the duties of the office. This might largely be eliminated if our secondary schools would impart the ability to analyze leadership and the consequent ability to select the proper kind of leaders. Good leaders and intelligent followers are a winning combination.

There have been attempts in leadership training, but these have aimed mainly at perfecting technical efficiency rather than the ability to influence the conduct of people. That a leader must know facts and possess technique is important, but that he

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Our schools have done a great deal to improve the quality of those who will be followers. Not so much has been done to develop the qualities of those with a talent for leadership. Apparently the latter effort is necessary—for every crisis the country has ever faced showed that there were not enough competent leaders to supply the demand. Even readers who are convinced that leadership cannot be taught must give attention to the author of this article, who is superintendent of schools at Northampton, Pennsylvania. For he has experimented in the teaching of leadership, and reports positive results.*

must know how to get people to follow him in certain situations is equally important. Mere knowledge does not make one a leader.

It was with this thought in mind that we of the Northampton Public Schools started to teach leadership—to see if it could be taught to a measurable degree.

But now the problem of what to teach presented itself. We would first have to make a quantitative analysis of leadership. To this question there was no definite answer based upon scientific evidence anywhere in the literature on this subject. There is a vast amount of literature on leadership, but nothing objective which describes just what leadership is.

In order to determine what was thought to be leadership, the author read a vast amount of material on leadership. A list of traits or qualities of leaders as given in these articles was kept as the reading proceeded. It was at once apparent from the large number of the qualities mentioned that leadership is either a very complicated thing or that there is very little objective knowledge on the subject. The question now was, which of the more than fifty traits mentioned, have anything to do with leadership and to what extent? A logical way to attack the problem suggested an analysis of the qualities mentioned, to determine if the list could not be boiled down greatly.

There seemed to be much repetition and overlapping. After considerable analysis and deliberation it was decided to investigate leadership on the basis of the following eleven traits:

*Intelligence, scholarship, social intelligence, height, ascendance, vitality, individuality, social adaptability, self-control, persistence, and voice.*

Objective ratings were gathered on the first five traits, and teacher ratings on the last six traits, for 181 students of the eleventh and twelfth grades of the Northampton Senior High School. In order to get a composite picture of the relation between leadership and each of the eleven

traits and the relation between the traits, a table of inter-correlations was prepared consisting of 111 correlations. This table, however, showed only the zero-order correlations. In order to rid these correlations of borrowed or overlapping influences, they were put through the technique of partial regression, using the Doolittle Work Sheet.

The traits in the order of their importance were as follows: individuality, persistence, height, self-control, social adaptability, scholarship, vitality, social intelligence, intelligence, ascendance, and voice.

We were now ready to teach leadership. This was done in the following manner on the basis of what our analysis had revealed:

Four experiments using the parallel-group technique were carried on over a period of two years in grades nine, ten, and twelve in two schools, using the homerooms as groups either experimental or control. The students used in the experiments were rated on leadership by other students not in the experiments, as follows:

Mimeographed lists of students to be rated were prepared, together with a supply of three-by-five cards on which appeared a place for the name of a student and the following definition of leadership: "A leader is one whom others are inclined to follow. Please rate the person listed above on leadership. Encircle one number." Directly below appeared the numerals from 1 to 5, one of which the rating students were to encircle; 1 being low and 5 high. Each student's leadership index was obtained by adding the encircled numbers and dividing by the number of cards.

Pairing was done on the basis of these ratings into experimental or taught groups, and control or untaught groups. The experimental groups were taught leadership on the basis of what our analysis had revealed and the control groups were untaught, being used merely to determine how much progress the taught had made.

Rating in leadership, naturally, was made at the beginning and the end of each of

the four experiments. The teaching was in the nature of group conferences on the traits of leadership as mentioned previously. Three of the experiments extended over a period of one year, and one was continued for two years.

The results of our four experiments were positive. That is, the taught groups were consistently rated higher in leadership by their fellow students than the groups which were not taught. In one of the experiments the students were challenged to put into practice what they had learned in theory in the leadership conferences. This combination of instruction in the technique of leadership and of guided practice in the application of these techniques gave results in leadership that were greater than instruction alone brought about.

The increase in leadership of the taught group of one experiment, which continued for two years, was very much greater than the others, which encourages us to believe that there is a strong probability that we can teach leadership in a practicable way. After all, we would not expect to train leaders over-night. It takes about twenty years to grow up physically and we would expect to teach leadership throughout the junior- and senior-high-school periods. This could be done by direct as well as indirect instruction.

Several leadership characteristics could be taught each year by the homeroom teachers, or by some teacher especially designated for this purpose. Suggestive outlines for the teaching of each of the traits of leadership have already been prepared.

It might be asked as to what could be said about height or any other trait which is not acquired. If height is important, it is well to know this, especially by those who are inclined to be short, for it is often possible to develop compensating abilities. Students ought to be encouraged to take inventory of their strong, and especially their weak points, from the point of view of leadership. With conscious effort, it is possible to improve in all of the traits of leadership.

Regarding indirect instruction, a skillful teacher will find instances daily in many different subjects. For example, in the teaching of history there will be many opportunities to point out leadership traits in historic characters. In vocational civics, leadership traits can be brought to the attention of the class on numerous occasions. Through clubs and various other extra-curricular activities of the school, leadership can be acquired. A leadership club would be just as logical as many we now have. There are, furthermore, many opportunities for the practice of leadership traits in regular classroom situations, for instance, self-control. The gymnasium, basketball floor, or football field, also give opportunities for the practice of leadership traits.

Given faculties with definite knowledge on this matter and a sympathetic point of view, it would appear justifiable to say that capable social leaders in sufficient numbers could be developed in the secondary schools of this country to man our democratic, social, and governmental institutions in an efficient manner.

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## Why We Discontinued or Curtailed

# HONOR AWARDS

By

HETH G. SMITH

GRANTING honor awards for various kinds of achievement—outstanding and otherwise—has become so common a practice that it seems doubtful whether much consideration is given to the factors which should determine whether or not the practice is desirable educationally. Athletic teams probably get more awards than other groups, but the practice has been expanded to include many other activities.

Recognizing the futility of trying to abandon the practice of giving athletic awards, and appreciating the unfairness of awarding honors for only one line of school activity, school executives endeavored to right matters by creating awards for various other phases of school work—outstanding scholarship, services to the school, et cetera.

Once started, the award system tended to grow and become more and more complicated. There seemed little that could be done in the way of retrenchment, but many chances for expansion. In all, many interesting and curious developments evolved.

Probably no more fascinating task has fallen to the lot of any principal than the

attempt to work out a system of honor awards. For what to give them, to whom to give them, what to give, and when to give are a few of the interesting considerations, but surely not the essential ones. The significant factors would be more nearly: Why give any awards? What effect do they have on the recipient and on other members of the school? How limit the practice to something like the amount good judgment dictates?

Awards have been given for outstanding scholarship, school services of various kinds, participation in extra-curricular activities, and citizenship.

Complicated systems for determining the recipients of wards have been tried. Some schools have had distinct honor emblems for each of several lines of activity—scholarship, citizenship, athletics. Others have broadened the athletic line and made participation in almost any school activity count toward an "activities" award. Still others have attempted to give one line of awards which shall be for meritorious school performance in the composite.

In such a system scholarship is very apt to count for a very large per cent of the honor points necessary to an award. This plan has the advantage of being very exact insofar as accounting is concerned.

If 40 points per semester are required for an honor, and a grade of A in a five-hour subject counts 8 points, a grade of B, 6 points, membership in the school orchestra 3 points, and so on, each pupil knows just where he stands in relation to the awards.

But the plan limits the number who can qualify to the better pupils.

Sweaters, blankets, pins, and monograms have been given as awards. Published lists



**EDITOR'S NOTE:** *Here is sharp reasoning on the whole subject of honor awards. The administrators of the Richmond, Indiana, schools studied the situation carefully. They considered the elaborate honor award systems of the local junior high schools, and the less extensive system of the senior high school. The author, who is principal of the Julia E. Test Junior High School of Richmond, tells why it was decided to eliminate honor awards in the junior high schools, and to keep them to a minimum in the senior high school.*

of honor students, recognition assemblies, and membership in honor societies have had their place in the systems of awards. Some schools have definitely stated the requirements for an award. Others have published a list of students who received all A's one time, and a list determined on some other standard the next—purposely avoiding setting up a definite standard for recognition.

In developing any scheme of honors there are many questions of policy that ought to be settled before one begins working on the routine of administration procedures.

Probably first of all it should be decided whether one line of school activity—athletics—is more deserving of recognition than others. Or is outstanding accomplishment in scholarship more significant than outstanding musical ability? In other words what lines of accomplishment is it desirable to honor by special recognition?

A second decision that must be made pertains to the degree of accessibility of awards. Shall only the select few receive them, or shall they be obtainable by a goodly per cent of the students? Shall only A students be recognized in scholarship, or all who get above C? Shall only first-team members be given athletic awards, or all who practice consistently? Who is the good citizen: only he who is a gifted leader, or all who are conscientious in doing their parts?

The third consideration is that of ability groups. Shall awards be given only to the few who are particularly outstanding in the best section of a class, or to the most outstanding in each of several ability groups?

In one case only a few of nature's gifted can even hope for recognition. In the other recognition means but little since it is so common.

The fourth problem concerns the effect of honor awards on the pupils of the school. What is the effect on the pupils who receive them? Does it tend to make them haughty, proud, and conceited, or is it an inspiration

to greater effort and a humble appreciation of their good fortune in being gifted and having opportunities?

What is the effect on the pupils who do not receive awards? Are they inspired to greater effort in the hope of future recognition, or do they lose sight of the true rewards of effort by confusing awards with inner changes? Are they encouraged to meet life's problems fighting, or do they tend to become indifferent? Do they tend to evaluate themselves by true measures of worth, or to develop inferiority complexes?

What is the effect on the pupil who tries hard in the hope and probable expectation of receiving recognition and barely misses the mark?

Is it a spur to a continued and possibly improved effort, or a cause of his giving up trying?

A fifth consideration, though probably not an especially significant one, is cost. Can the money be had for financing the awards? If so, had it better be spent for awards, or for some other school project?

A sixth point is the effect that honor awards have in parent-school relationships. Do parents, as a group, feel that an honor system is desirable or does it tend to create dissatisfaction? Is it possible to make an honor system clear to parents or does it tend to confuse them? Is more gained by the joy brought to the parents of the few who get awards than is lost through the disappointments of the others? Will parents tend to lose sight of the real objectives of education by confusing them with working for rewards?

During the school year of 1934-1935 the Secondary Conference Group—superintendent, assistant superintendent, and secondary principals—of Richmond, Indiana, undertook a careful study of the honor awards systems of the city with the intention of checking present practices and recommending such changes as the facts seemed to show were needed. A meeting was held once every two weeks for one and one-half hours, at

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which time findings were discussed and methods of further procedure outlined. Final conclusions were drawn near the end of the school year.

The study showed that the elementary schools had no system of granting honor awards and none were given. The junior high schools—seventh, eighth, and ninth grades—however, had elaborate systems. An attempt was being made to give awards for many kinds of pupil activities, such as: scholarship, citizenship, activities, etc. Honors were granted freely and a goodly percent of pupils could and did receive them.

The senior high school gave fewer honors, and these were not such that they cost a great deal. Published lists, scholarships, merit badges, and the athletic monograms were the major awards.

Both the junior high schools and the senior school had definitely outlined systems, the junior being much the more complicated of the two.

The study brought forth certain statements, questions, and principles which are significant in the consideration of honor systems. These are summarized in the following paragraphs:

There are three possible reasons for giving honor awards, (1) encouragement or motive to do better work, (2) recognition of services given the school by the pupil, and (3) helping bring about a school spirit that is necessary for real school success.

Regarding the first aim—motivation—it was pointed out that the effect of any conduct learning is measured by the nature and strength of the motive engendered. An award is designed to generate a motive for a certain kind of behavior; obviously the initial motive aroused is to get the award or there would be no point to its being offered. The crux of the issue is whether the motive to get the award transfers to the motive to behave in a certain way.

The whole question of transfer is unsettled; therefore, any system of awards rests on a doubtful psychological basis.

The second reason—recognition of services performed—assumes that the pupil is something apart from the school rather than a definite factor in it, that the service performed is of value to the rest of the school rather than to the individual performer, that one is a good citizen for the benefit of others rather than himself, and that the school benefits more from one's scholastic accomplishments than one does one's self.

It would seem then that the first two reasons for giving awards are based on false premises.

Does getting a citizenship award tend to make one a better citizen under circumstances outside the school?

Does the school owe the pupil an award for being a good citizen, scholar, or participant in activities?

Would not the same pupils be good scholars, good citizens or participants in activities if no awards were given?

Is not the granting of an award as a motive for citizenship, scholarship or participation in activities an admission of the school's inability to put the motivation for pupil activities on the right plane?

Is there not the probability that the pupil who works for awards in school, and later finds that the world grants no awards for his good citizenship, etc., will be the citizen who feels that he is not appreciated at his full worth?

If we consider the scholarship award separately, we are forced to admit that about the only factor the pupil contributes to good scholarship is effort. Nature determined his I.Q. and society furnishes the school. Why then, recognize the gifted pupil who works hard, and fail to recognize the less brilliant pupil who plods along, often in the face of discouragement and always somewhat at a disadvantage in his classroom associations?

The activities award is needed only if (1) it is the means of getting more pupils to participate or (2) the school thinks it owes

the participant a debt for his services.

It is doubtful that any pupil ever joined an athletic team, an orchestra or any other activity for the purpose of getting an award. He joined for the fun of taking part. If this be true, the only justification for the activities award would be the payment of the school's debt for the pupil's services.

It is hard to imagine the school owing an orchestra member anything after he has been given the opportunity of group practice, the services of a trained director, and the paid support of the community for public appearance on a program. No less difficult is it to imagine the school owing the athlete a debt for his services after furnishing him the time of a skilled coach and the financial support of the public in its attendance at games.

Then too, we must never lose sight of the fact that the pupil is a part of the school and is serving himself as much as anyone else when he participates in school activities.

Turning now to citizenship, we undertake to give honor awards for the most intangible and subjective of all school activities. It is not, in itself, anything concrete. A person is as good or poor citizen only through other activities. His behavior in class, in the lunch line, at play and wherever he goes is his citizenship. His motive may be the determining factor as to whether a particular act is one of good or poor citizenship.

Finding one's niche and fitting it well is probably the best possible citizenship. Why give an honor award to the pupil whose niche happens to be one of leadership, and neglect the pupil who was intended by nature to follow the leadership of others?

The third possible reason for giving awards—helping bring about a school spirit that is necessary for real school success—

has some things to be said in its favor; granting, of course, that giving awards does tend to develop good school spirit. Certainly good school spirit is a very significant factor and anything which fosters it is worthy of careful consideration.

Probably the school spirit engendered by granting honor awards comes mostly from getting all the school to think about certain things at a particular time. Very likely any project of general interest would have the same kind of results.

Seeing students wearing the school monogram causes people to think about the school.

The assembly program at which honor awards are given has some value, no doubt, in furnishing inspiration to part of the pupils. Just how much discouragement others acquire is not measurable.

The publicity attendant to honor awards has a value in getting parents to think about the school and its activities. Unfortunately some of the resultant thoughts are not particularly complimentary.

After a careful study of the factors involved, the school system of Richmond, Indiana, decided to discontinue entirely the granting of awards in its junior high schools and to keep the awards to a minimum in the senior high school. No awards had been given in the elementary schools.

This is a drastic change in junior-high-school policies in this city because few school systems sponsored such an elaborate honor system in their junior high schools as we had.

It is probably too early to judge results of the change. Apparently pupils are doing as good work as usual, are taking part in athletics with the same vigor as before, and are not becoming poor citizens. There seems to be no slump in school spirit and life goes merrily on.



# The GEOMETRY-ART UNIT

Hugh Morson High offers geometry  
in relation to art and architecture

By  
LAURA EFIRD

EDUCATION is no longer confined within the narrow channels of textbooks but is being increasingly projected into many paths of educational opportunities and of living.

For the past decade leaders in the various fields of learning have been throwing out the challenge that, due to rapid social changes, it is highly essential that secondary schools develop qualities of initiative and self-reliance which will enable youth to adapt itself to these changes. This need is sufficient reason for the development of the type of geometry course described here.

The Geometry-Art Unit of the Hugh Morson High School grew out of a desire to take plane geometry out of the abstract field, to make the teaching of it more interesting, to establish a more direct and immediate application, and at the same time to develop the technical and constructive phases of each.

Another desire was to present the aesthetic and human side of art and architecture; and still another to trace the growth of each and show how each is a development of the age out of which it comes. Both

of these arts are firmly based on mathematical principles, for the laws of perspective and symmetry are mathematical laws. Symmetry includes balance and value—and much of our modern geometry is a series of studies in balance and value.

Then, since geometry is the basic foundation of both commercial art and architecture, there is found in this correlation its most direct application.

Perhaps most students think of plane geometry as a subject that must be taken in order to enter college. They see no relation between it and the world about them. To present the subject as a textbook study alone will not give the student this relationship that is so evident to one who has made attempts at such correlation.

These attempts help to bring about one of the prime aims of education: "To give meaning in living terms to the subject in hand."

This unit covers two semesters. In the fall semester the geometric constructions are applied to motifs in border designs, art windows, and natural objects.

The attention of the students is directed to geometric forms in nature. They find that a cross-section of a banana will give a six-sided figure; that of an orange will give a circle divided into ten parts with a ten-pointed star in the center. In the study of leaves, students discover many triangular in shape. Also they find in the arrangement of leaves that each half is almost like the other. So there is formal balance.

Not all propositions lend themselves to any particular application, but are necessary to preserve the continuity of the subject. So while studying such propositions the students may be permitted to make re-

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EDITOR'S NOTE: *The high-school teachers of Raleigh, North Carolina, have been carrying on an extended curriculum study. The object was to establish a closer relation between the different subjects and the pupils' interests and environment. The author, who teaches mathematics in the Hugh Morson High School at Raleigh, tried on her part to find reasons for teaching plane geometry other than the traditional one of "discipline through formal proof." Here she describes the course that she developed.*

productions from natural objects or still life.

Through reproduction they learn the value of color and design. They learn that rhythm is expressed through parallel lines and repetition of the same color. Through reproduction they also obtain a sense of spatial relation and proportion. While reproduction is necessary, every possible opportunity for creative work is given from the very beginning of the course. For example, the whole class may be given the same geometric movement from which to create some design. By a different arrangement of the movement and by a different color scheme, no two of the designs will be alike.

The work usually begins with parallel lines: first, the horizontal; then the oblique; both forward and backward movements. By combining the forward and backward movements they get the zigzag motif. By sustaining a particular motif in grouping and the same ratio in spatial relation throughout the design, many beautiful patterns may be obtained.

Creative work, which is the crowning objective of the course, may begin immediately. But do not call it such. Simply ask the class to take two or more types of movements, say of parallel lines, and by use of differences in grouping, in spatial ratio, and in color emphasis, bring back to class three new and distinct border designs. The result is creative work, minus the fright that comes from the feeling that they must do something they do not know how to do.

This procedure may be followed with each newly learned motif until all the movements are completed—that of combining each new movement with any one or more of the old ones. In this way the pupil is led to creative work in color and design in a painless way. It must be remembered that before there can be creation in anything, one must know *how* to express himself; and a pupil may be led to original work, but he cannot be forced to it.

After weeks of study in the applications of the geometric movements in design, the attention of the class may be directed to the finding of some of these same movements in nature in the handiwork of man about them. Many surprises will be experienced by the class in recognizing things that for years they had passed by—and had not seen until now.

The study of circles has one of its broadest applications in art church-windows. After visiting some nearby church and reproducing some of the art-windows there, the pupils will want to create some.

It is always quite interesting to note how the modernistic lines will creep into their original patterns, regardless of the fact that there were no such leanings in their preceding study.

Following the study of areas and of regular polygons, the attention of the class may be directed toward the geometric patterns that are found in rugs, linoleum, wall paper, fabrics of many kinds, and so on. Each of these materials may be made a separate and distinct study.

If it is a study of rugs, visit the rug department of some store in order to study and criticize the different patterns and designs found there. They will then begin to notice the patterns in their own rugs at home and in those belonging to their friends. After such a study and criticism, the pupils will be ready to apply their own ideas by originating a new design, making use of any combinations they have studied. A similar study of all the commercial commodities which are found convenient, and in which there are applications, may be made.

Some of the propositions in Books III, IV, and V lend themselves to the application of architecture. A simple geometric construction, *per se*, means little to a student; but when directly applied to the material world in which he lives, it has a definite meaning.

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control, which are acquired in such application, emphasizes and fixes the various fundamental processes. Take, for example, the proposition of dividing a line into extreme and mean ratio. This problem was called the Golden Section by the Greeks, because they considered it the most aesthetic in its application.

By our modern students this problem is considered a difficult one. But if it is immediately applied to the study of some building that in its dimensions approaches such a relation, it means something to them.

At some convenient time during the fall semester, while studying a group of propositions that cannot be related to commercial art, we make a study of the world's most famous artists and of some of their most famous paintings. A similar study of the world's greatest architects and their productions is made sometime during the spring semester. The development of architecture throughout the ages or periods makes an interesting frieze for the classroom.

There is a question that frequently arises in the minds of teachers of mathematics who never attempted this kind of correlation. Will not such a course weaken the traditional idea that geometry is a course *purely* for logical reasoning?

The answer is that those teachers are limiting the field. Geometry is a science that investigates relations as well as properties of magnitudes. Then why know these relations and properties and not know how to use them? Since there are so many avenues of approach to the numerous applications, no particular method can be given. Much depends upon the initiative of the teacher.

However, it is not necessary that the teacher be an artist or an architect. The important feature is that the pupils have some kind of good text to follow in order to maintain the geometric sequence so necessary for a clear understanding of the subject. Another necessary thing to consider is that of securing a certain motor control in free-hand construction. This may be partially

secured through weeks of practice, both in class and in home work, of the different geometric movements that form the basis of art production. In patterns where regular polygons occur, drawing instruments are necessary.

If it be granted that there is no loss of mathematical knowledge or of experience in systematic, formal proof in teaching geometry in its relation to art and architecture, then what is gained of additional value? Teachers of art tell us that in every boy and girl there is an innate desire for beauty; that beautiful things have a refining influence upon their minds; that lovely things satisfy their desires and make them happier, and that in a way they control attitudes and help to make up what we choose to call *personality*. Then should not our boys and girls be given some knowledge and understanding of that which helps to make living itself an art?

They get an introduction to this knowledge when they learn that there are certain line arrangements and colors that are more soothing to the nerves than others.

#### ART IN THE HOME

The home is the background of the child. The pictures on the walls, the rugs on the floor, the color of the walls and draperies, the kind of furniture and the arrangement of the furniture, all have their effect upon the delicate organisms of a growing child. For a healthy minded child there must be a happy, cheerful atmosphere in the home; and a beautiful, artistic, restful environment helps to produce this.

In addition to a study of the home background in this geometry course, the pupils are aided in developing the color discrimination so necessary to obtain harmony in certain color combinations. They learn that there may arise a jarring discord in a wrong combination or in the lack of proper spatial ratio in the color scheme. This study may be carried to the selection of dress fabrics

in correct color combination as well as in the design.

Such experiences should help to develop a mind that will be sensitive to beauty, and thus help one to respond to fine things, and should arouse the pupil's desire to make his environment as pleasant as possible.

#### ART IN VOCATIONS

The geometric lines are playing a larger part in the commercial world today than ever before—they have entered and influenced every vocation known.

The automobile manufacturer is hunting artistic lines, as well as the less-friction stream line, to put into the body make-up of his new-model car. The architect is using more art in designing simple bungalows and in giving grace and proportion to great

mansions. The geometric lines are even entering into the manufacturing of household utensils. So there are found numerous outlets for the course that this article in a small way is trying to advocate. Each class will generally be known for some particular type of outlet.

Often the city organizations call on our class for posters, place cards, programs, and the like. And even if an individual student never has any practical use for art in any of its forms, this course on the whole should be good training for the use of leisure time or as an avocation.

By giving leisure time to art a life-interest or vocation may be discovered. Then, too, in this day of much unemployment one should have a variety of ways in which to use leisure hours.

## On a Student-Teacher of an Afternoon Algebra Class

By G. A. KUYPER

The blackboard filled with x's cubed and squared,  
With numerals and algebraic signs;  
The teacher, struggling with his rules and lines,  
Divides, subtracts and adds—so ill-prepared;  
The classroom warm, and heavy with the weight  
Of all the earlier classes' dull defeat—  
Siesta inclinations are more meet  
Than Algebra's aristocratic state.

Oh young America, whose life outside  
The school is gay, alive, enhanced with zest,  
What are we doing in the sacred name  
Of Education, thus to make you tame  
And dull in school, with us, while in the rest  
Of life you merrily rush on—while we abide?

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## *A Technique of Teaching*

# POETIC COMPOSITION

By M. R. VAN CLEVE

HAVING secured what seems to me noteworthy results in poetic composition, as illustrated by the following verses from a seventh-grade class, I thought perhaps some readers would be interested in the technique used.

### SUNSET

White clouds sailing on a blue sea,  
Sailing toward the red harbors of sunset.  
Below, the trees are getting dim,  
Where birds are slumbering.

*Jeanne Wallace*

### NIGHT IN THE WOODS

The birch stands naked,  
Silver in the moonlight,  
Lifting adoring arms in silent prayer.  
The winds hum softly,  
As I kneel.

*Patricia Rose*

### EVENING

I walked along the country lane  
Neath boughs of leafy green.  
By fields no longer brown and bare,  
But fresh and green and clean.

I walked along the country lane,  
And with the setting sun,  
Boughs of swaying rustling leaves  
Whispered that day was done.

*Suzanne Perry*

—■—

EDITOR'S NOTE: *A simple teaching plan for drawing pupils into a program of poetic expression is explained by the author, who is principal of the Robinson Junior High School, Toledo, Ohio. Every reader can judge the value of Mr. Van Cleve's method for himself—for he offers samples of his results. The nine pieces of verse which he quotes were written by children in a seventh-grade English class which the author took over once a week.*

### THE STORM

The storm is an angry lion,—  
Thunder is his roar,  
The darkness over the world is the madness in his eyes,  
He rocks the trees until they cry for mercy,  
He strikes ships at sea with a quick paw,  
And men cry to God.

*Alice Kiefer*

### ON THE HILLTOP

I sat on the hilltop high,  
Looking over the town.  
The peace of evening crept around me.  
The grass swayed in the breeze.  
One bird sang.  
I waited until evening came.  
The lights of heaven sparkled.  
In the darkness of the valley  
One light shone  
Like a diamond set in a velvet case.

*Suzanne Perry*

### SCENE

It was Christmas in the country,  
And the ground was sparkling white,  
And the little running brook  
Was a shining glassy wonder,  
And the trees were frosty giants  
Guarding the great white house.

*Jane Burbank*

### WHEN THE WIND BLOWS

Sometimes when the wind blows  
You'd think the trees were falling down.  
And sometimes they only shiver,  
As if they were cold,  
In the bright sun of day.

*Frederick Racker*

### BY THE SHORE

The waves are armies of soldiers  
That march upon the shore  
To conquer the sandy bank,  
White plumes on their helmets  
And armor of deep blue.  
After the sand defeats them  
They retreat into the deep.

*Lisbeth Morgan*

It seems to me that the foregoing verses have considerable poetry in them, judged by criteria of the sense of the beautiful, feeling, imagination, rhythm and originality of expression.

I took once a week a high-group seventh-grade English class which had been reading lyric poetry for several days. They were asked to list all the lovely things they could think of. We combined the various lists. The large majority of the items were about nature.

Then I gave them some simple principles of poetic composition: poetry expresses feeling, poetry appeals to the imagination, poetry seeks out and tries to express beauty, poetry should have rhythm, poetry uses unusual words. One prohibition was laid down: "Do not use rhyme until you have shown me that you can write poetically." No one thing is more of a hindrance to successful poem-writing by children than the attempt to rhyme.

We read poetry together audibly and silently, looking for uses of the poetic principles which we had listed. Then the pupils were asked to select some item from their list of lovely things and try to say something poetic about it. Not many succeeded, but a few did. And thus were discovered some who understood. These I worked with privately out of class time.

Soon we had the following exercise: An attractive oil painting was placed in front of the class, and the pupils were asked to list all the things in the picture about which a poet might write.

Then adjectives were added to the nouns; not trite ones, but picturesque, imaginative, feelingful ones. Then came the direction, "Take two or three of these items you have listed and put them into a phrase, a sentence. Take some more and do the same." We heard these read, and tested them by the principles we had laid down.

The making of these word pictures was popular and productive. Two or three les-

sons were given to it.

About this time, after lessons once a week for five or six weeks, an option was given to members of the class to continue with our poetic composition lessons or to stop. Those who wished to do so were allowed to read during the class period while the rest worked at the project. About half the class quit. Poetry writing is difficult and of course it does not appeal to all.

The twenty worked on along with me. They were asked to paint word pictures from their imaginations. Sunset was suggested as a theme. It produced several good poems.

We came back at times to the study of real pictures, and then returned to imaginative pictures. On another day some first lines were suggested, such as "I walked along the country lane," "It was Christmas in the country." That is how I got two of the foregoing poems. The last five lines in the latter poem were entirely original. Not a word was changed after submittal.

Individual attention was the rule from then on. I was scrupulously careful not to offer a substitute for a single word. Where a line, a phrase, or a word was poor the pupil was asked, "What is wrong with that?" "What poetic principle is violated?" The admonition "avoid commonplace words and expressions" is perhaps a crude rule, but it was understood by the pupils and brought results.

I could not always get the better word or phrase—but I never suggested it. However, when an improvement was made, in my judgment, I said "Good, that's it." If this seems to be too much guidance, I ask you: What are teachers and art critics for?

After ten or fifteen lessons only a dozen pupils were left. But they showed promise. They were encouraged and guided, and they stayed on through the whole year, producing thirty-odd poems as good as the samples quoted. Some experimented with rhymes, but only one or two succeeded well.

Here is one that was successful, a poem  
definitely intended for little children. Read  
it aloud, and I believe you will like it.

#### FAIRIES

Listen my children and you shall hear  
Of wonderful fairies that play near here.

They play in the night when the moon is high,  
And hide in the grass when you come by.

And sometimes when you are in your bed,  
When the room is dark and the candle dead,  
They come through the window and dance on the  
floor,  
And climb all over the nursery door.

Suzanne Perry

### \* \* FLASHES \* \*

The fact is that with all of our prating we have but few truly socialized teachers.—EDITORIAL in the *Kansas Teacher*.

In all educational procedures we must recognize the fact that people have to live before they know how.—CHESTER C. DIETERT in *School Activities*.

The schools esteem most highly the person who can speak 20 languages, although he may talk nonsense in all of them.—MARK STARR, in *The American Teacher*.

One wonders how long we are going to test honesty by testing cheating in the examination technique of the schools.—BOOK REVIEW in *Character in Everyday Life*.

Education is in part the discovery and occupancy of places of vantage from which one may view with the greatest degree of clarity the greatest area of a problem.—EDITORIAL in the *Peabody Journal of Education*.

With a probable \$500,000,000 going into new school construction, school design remains static. Modern educational technique aimed to prepare for 20th Century living is forced to function in a 19th Century shell.—*The Architectural Forum*.

It is not impossible that one of the principal things wrong with our present variety of living is that too few, too pathetically few, take poetry into it. But, for such a condition of affairs, are not we who teach largely at fault? —EARL DANIELS in *The English Journal*.

# WHAT *is* SUCCESS?

By  
ROBERT HOPPOCK

IF THERE is one human phenomenon that is characteristic of a hundred million Americans, it is the desire to succeed. Our ideas of success vary, as do the prices we are willing to pay for it, and the rules of the game by which we are willing, or unwilling, to restrict ourselves in our efforts to reach the goal. But the desire to achieve what we consider success is common to us all.

To one person success means money; to another fame, or service, or social distinction. To one it means achievement; to another rest. To one friends; to another power, at any sacrifice of human relationships. To a pretty girl who has never been disappointed in love, a happy marriage may be the acme of achievement. To her less fortunate sister, nothing may suffice save conspicuous superiority in a man's world of professional competition—a superiority which will partially soothe the aching wound left by failure in what she instinctively feels to be her natural role.

Research workers, evaluating the effects of vocational guidance programs, have used as criteria of success: earnings, satisfaction, job level, length of employment, and frequency of changing jobs. The American Telephone and Telegraph Company has used earnings in the Bell System as a criterion in many of its personnel studies. This

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EDITOR'S NOTE: *The author's question is almost as hard to answer, and is almost as debatable, as Pilate's well-known query. However, he offers a social definition that secondary schools can apply practically in assisting their pupils to formulate goals. Dr. Hopcock is assistant to the director of the National Occupational Conference.*

## An analysis of success in terms of guidance objectives

is on the theory that earnings reflect the best judgment of several superiors and hence are the best measure of the worth of an employee to the company. Several criteria used by other companies are listed and discussed by Bingham and Freyd.<sup>1</sup>

But from the psychological point of view, even a hobo may be a success. Who, that has read Stevenson's delightful "Apology for Idlers," will deny that one may honestly prefer the quiet life to one of frantic effort? Success can never be measured in absolute terms, save by the yardstick of individual objective.

There is one criterion that can be universally applied. By it, *success is the ratio between what we have and what we want.* This definition is applicable equally to success as measured by the employer, the employee, and by society.

Compare popular ideas of success in Great Britain and the United States. Britain is a country of extremely limited natural resources. The welfare of the population is dependent upon the preservation of the Empire, for while money wealth may rest in the Bank of England, the real wealth of Britain is found principally in her outlying possessions and her self-governing dominions. Consequently the men most highly honored at home are her statesmen, and public service draws to itself the cream of the graduates from Oxford and Cambridge.

But the United States is a country of vast natural resources, a country in which the welfare of the people for the past hundred years has depended primarily upon efficient exploitation. Public acclaim, quite inevit-

<sup>1</sup> Bingham, W. V. and Freyd, M. *Procedures in Employment Psychology*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.



ably, has gone to the men most efficient in that activity. The characteristic American ideal is—or was until 1929—the captain of industry; and our public service could go to the dogs.

During the past few centuries, what Britain wanted was an Empire. The "successful" men, in the eyes of the community, were those who reduced the disparity between what Britain *wanted* and what Britain *had*. They were the empire builders: Disraeli, Cecil Rhodes, and a thousand unnamed others enshrined in Kipling's immortal poems.

Likewise with the employer, in his judgment of success. The manufacturer wants production. The successful man to him is the man who can produce the maximum number of units of a given quality, in the minimum time, with minimum consumption of material and overhead. But in the insurance business, costs are relatively fixed. The insurance company wants new business to replace its expirations. The successful insurance man is the salesman who writes a million a year in new policies.

The life blood of the public utility is monopoly with a minimum of governmental regulation, and here the stockholder measures success by the adroitness with which the management can protect it from destructive legislation, without bringing on a Congressional Investigation. Manufacturers want production, insurance companies want sales, the utilities want freedom. The successful man to each is the one who gives what is wanted. Success again is measured by the ratio between what we have and what we want.

To teachers and counselors, interested in developing a race of young Americans who will be successful in the finest, most wholesome sense of the word, the problem divides itself into two parts:

1. The cultivation of ideals, the modification of ambitions, the creation of socially and individually desirable ideas of *what* we want.
2. The provision of experiences, both cultural

and vocational, planned to increase the probability that the individual will be able to *get* whatever wholesome things there are that he decides he wants.

Guidance then becomes a process of:

1. Discovering what the individual now wants.
2. Accepting this temporarily if it appears socially acceptable, and scrutinizing it carefully, otherwise.
3. Examining the equipment with which the individual must undertake to get what he wants.
4. Re-appraising the objective at this stage to see if it is reasonably within the realm of his possible attainments.
5. Helping him to find a new objective should this be necessary or desirable.
6. Helping him to prepare for, enter upon, and progress in his quest for that objective.

This process is not essentially different from the best current practice in a good guidance program. It is merely a re-statement of the process in terms of success as the ultimate objective.

The criteria by which we judge when one has achieved success obviously depend upon who is doing the judging and why. To the counselor, whose primary concern is the pupil himself, the problem is to discover what the pupil wants, how far he has gone toward getting it, and what chance he has to go the remainder of the way. There may be one criterion or several. They cannot be named in advance for they depend wholly upon what objective the individual has set for himself.

The problem is not so simple as merely ascertaining what the pupil *thinks* he wants. Often he does not know, or only thinks he knows. He may suffer from a long standing sense of inferiority and know only a frantic urge to be superior. This may have fixed itself upon an occupational choice for which he is wholly unfitted, but to which he will cling like a drowning man until he is shown some other occupation that will give him an equal feeling of superiority.

The shrewd counselor looks for such underlying motives. He may call in a psychiatrist; or he may quietly meet the vocational

problem by the clever suggestion of a more appropriate occupation, without ever revealing to the subject the real reasons behind his suggestion. For example, a girl of mediocre intelligence, determined to be a teacher because teachers work with children, may find equal satisfaction as a child's nurse; while a boy who thinks he can be happy only as an army officer, shouting orders to buck privates, may be just as well pleased if he gets to be a traffic cop.

To discover what an individual pupil really wants is no simple process. With the limited knowledge we now have, it may be impossible fully to understand. But cer-

tainly no intelligent guidance can be given until we have learned as much as possible about the motivating factors in the life of the subject.

Pencil and paper devices such as our job-satisfaction blanks may reveal some leads. They may give us some ideas of where to look for difficulties in dissatisfied adults. But only the most careful kind of clinical case study, which includes everything we can learn from the parents, as well as from the teacher, the psychologist, the physician and the psychiatrist, will enable us to formulate adequate criteria for estimating the personal success of any individual.

## Parable

By GORDON M. RIDENOUR

1. Early on the first *day* of the week departed Henry *and* his son Charles, in a chariot of fire, for the great city.

2. The father, *being* a salesman who had traversed the four corners of the earth, kneweth his ten-year-old son could learn much from a journey away from the home of his birth.

3. So, Charles saw buildings which pointed a thousand feet in the air and rode on trains which groveled on their stomachs through the bowels of the earth.

4. He gazed in awe at the firmament in the planetarium, traveled back through the years in the museum, *and* marveled at the apes in the zoo.

5. The music of the immortals played upon his heartstrings as he listened to a famed violinist.

6. When he returned home, Charles was

as *one* in the seventh heaven, so full *was* he of joyful knowledge.

7. Albeit, when he returned to school after a week's absence, the chief over all attendance poured out vials of wrath upon his head, saying:

8. "For thy five days absence, the district loseth an hundred forty-five pennies in state aid; thine absence *wast* illegal."

9. "How canst thou *be* educated if thou dost not attend school more regularly?"

10. As a lamb before her shearers is dumb, so opened Charles not his mouth.

11. For he kneweth what he had learned in the great city was more precious than much fine gold and more valuable than six weeks in an unknowing school.

12. Verily, a new fashioned world *becometh* more educational than an old fashioned school.

# The READING PROBLEM of Szadokievski and Tuiccillio

By EMMA MELLOU CAMPBELL

"BIG JOE," "Little Joe," "Blue-eyed Rosie," "Brown-eyed Rosie," and "French Marie" are what I called them, for although I had been teaching for sixteen years in one of the high schools of a big industrial city and could say "Pasquerelli" and "Kasmierski," I couldn't say the names of the children in this 10-B class in English. After some attempts at "Buccigrossi," "Hahalyak," "Szadokievski" and "Tuiccillio," I gave up and used fancy names for them when there were two children of the same given name. They liked my fancy names and we were a happy class.

I often wondered how so many had come into one class. They must have been the children of one of the importations of mill workers just before the World War and before immigration was fixed by quotas. They were Poles, Slovacs, Lithuanians, Austrians, Italians, Greeks.

This class came about the time we were discovering that many of the children in the high schools couldn't read. We were giving reading tests, devised by psychologists and pedagogs to gauge the compre-

hension and speed of these bewildered youngsters. Many of them had little understanding of what they read. Many of them were like me: They couldn't pronounce the words. We organized reading classes to recite after school in the opportunity period. Most of my 10-B's were in those classes.

That set me to thinking. In the weary hours that I spent in marking those test papers, and in listening to professors from the university discuss the reading problem, I continued to think my own thoughts. What were these children in my class trying to read?

The course of study required two days a week to be devoted to essentials of English: spelling, punctuation, sentence structure, and paragraph arrangement, with examples drawn from the English classics. One day they wrote compositions, and the other two days they read one of the college entrance requirement classics.

Just then my class was reading *The Lady of the Lake*. That poem meant a great deal to me. My ancestors had lived on the shores of Loch Lomond, under the shadows of the bens, in the strath of the Endrick. I had visited the region more than once. A large framed picture of Loch Katrine hung over my bookcase. A sprig of white heather kept the place in my tartan-bound volume of the poem. I was equipped to teach *The Lady of the Lake*, but it didn't mean much to my class. They couldn't even get the story. I had to explain and explain, or let them read just for the rhythm of the verse. Most of them were musical enough to like the sound, when I read aloud.

I wondered if I should go to the university at Cracow, and try to read Polish litera-

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EDITOR'S NOTE: *English teachers whose classes contain many children of immigrant parentage will appreciate the problem faced by the author, who taught English in a Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, high school. One of her solutions was a project in foreign literature, which she advises using only once during a semester. But when it comes to teaching Silas Marner to young Poles, and Macaulay to Italians, she throws up her hands, and offers a very reasonable proposal for a different type of subject matter.*

ture—even if I could learn the language, and I was very sure I couldn't—how well I should understand the background, the allusions, the atmosphere.

I was encouraged in my thinking by a talk given by a member of the A.A.U.W. who had spent the summer in Poland. She talked about the beauty of the medieval architecture, of the queen who had dreamed of a seat of learning for Poland and had left her jewels for the founding of a university. Queen Jadwiga it was. The assembly hall had dark red walls emblazoned with the emblems of the university in gold, and they were hung with portraits of the Polish kings who had been patrons of the university. Over the platform hung a portrait of Copernicus, the Polish astronomer, who more than four hundred years ago was a student at the University of Cracow.

So, encouraged in my notion that perhaps my pupils knew something of the culture of their own countries, I spent the time I usually allotted to the assignment of the lesson for the next day to a little talk about how every nation had a literature of its own. I admitted I was ignorant concerning the literatures of Poland, Austria and Hungary. I then asked my pupils if any of them had books that would enlighten me. Would they please bring them to school the next day?

If you want to be sure of the coöperation of your pupils, just tell them that you don't know and ask them to help you to learn. It works like a charm.

When I went to my classroom the next morning, there, at the door, was Veronica with a volume so big she could hardly carry it, all about the history, the industries, the cities, the schools, the churches, the libraries of Poland. It belonged to "grandfather," who had permitted Veronica to bring it only that Teacher might learn from this book what a great country Poland had once been. I learned a great deal by looking at the pictures. None of our textbooks were so helpful.

Pietro brought a copy of Dante's sonnets. It belonged to his uncle, who requested that Teacher keep it locked up in her desk until Pietro should read from it. The tooled leather cover, the paper, the printing told me that it was an edition *de luxe*, and that it was old, but I didn't know enough about Italian books to appreciate how rare a book it was.

When the period came for English 3, I opened Veronica's big book to a picture of Count Casimir Pulaski. I told the class that I knew a little town in Pennsylvania named for him, because Pulaski had come to help us in the Revolution, that he had been a major-general in our army, that he had been killed at the siege of Savannah.

I then opened the book to a picture of Ignace Jan Paderewski and told the class how the American people loved him. When I had thus connected the two nations, I called Veronica to the desk to show the pictures and to explain some things I couldn't understand. She showed us pictures of the places her family had lived, and explained some of the country scenes. We asked her to read from the literature section of the book, but she was afraid we should laugh at her.

Pietro read from his book of sonnets, and the sound was a soft melody. Sophie Floccus had been to Greece in the summer to visit her grandparents, and she brought to school a newspaper from Athens. She exhibited the advertisements and told us how stylishly the women of Athens were dressed. "They wear the latest styles from Paris," she said.

French Marie offered to recite a poem in her native tongue. I then took from my desk a book of the Psalms in Hebrew. My brother, who was a minister and had studied Hebrew in the seminary, had given it to me. I handed the little book to Jacob and asked him to read the First Psalm. He was attending confirmation class at the Temple, and I knew he could read some Hebrew.

I was confirmed in my notion that a book



of sketches, stories, and poems translated from European literature into English would make good readers of my class. They would understand, they would get the feeling of those stories.

But who would prepare such a book? I didn't know any teacher who could. And what Board of Education would adopt it? Not one.

The objections are that these foreign children must forget their native lands. They must become American, and it is the first duty of the public schools to make good Americans of them. So it is. No one believes that more sincerely than I do. But I remember what Armand said to me, "When they call me a Dago, I don't feel like an American."

Since a book of translations is impossible, let us be American. Let us teach American literature. When we have to look up references to history, to places and persons, let them be American. That would lay a foundation for good citizenship in our country. The children like to say, "When we came over in the Mayflower" although it may be the poor dears were brought over in the steerage when they were babies.

When I think of the time and effort I have spent on teaching *Silas Marner*, Macaulay's "Essay on Johnson," Milton's *Minor Poems* and other College Entrance Requirements, I count that time more than lost. How I had to explain Whig and Tory, Jacobite, "blind mouths" and "her dragon yoke"! I talked with a teacher this summer

who is still trying to explain *The Canterbury Tales* to her high-school pupils. I sympathized with her.

The same day that the 10-B's had a lesson from their own books—and I don't advocate that procedure more than once a semester, just to take the stigma from a foreign name—that same day the program for my 12-B's was such that I am almost ashamed to put it down.

The 12-B's were studying Halleck's *History of English Literature*. We had come to the Age of Romanticism. We were having reports on supplementary reading: Dominic de Vittorio was to report on Wordsworth's "Michael"; Rachel Golden on Coleridge's "Christabel"; William Weingarten on Scott's "Marmion," and Blair Wishart on Burn's "The Cotter's Saturday Night." This last assignment was singularly appropriate. Any Blair or any Wishart should understand "The Cotter's Saturday Night" but he couldn't make his classmates feel it.

I was but following the course of study, and using the textbooks provided. Not many colleges require entrance examinations now. Very few of our high-school students should go to college. They all go into life in America. Isn't it only common sense to put our efforts on teaching *American* literature with references to our own heroes, traditions, customs? An English textbook on our own land and literature would help teachers in making American citizens of such children as were in my 10-B English class.

# WHAT OTHERS SAY

Edited by LAURA TERRY TYLER

JANUARY is a good time for us to give careful consideration to our values both as individuals and as members of society. If we have no codes or philosophies for regulating our lives, we are drifters and as such have no right to criticise or condemn others. In our work as educators we are engaged in helping young people to arrange their lives and to formulate their principles of living—a very serious task. Would it not be well for us to have definite ideas of our own worth?

*Formula for measurement of moral worth:*

## What Is Good Character?

One's character is as good as:

The number of persons whose lives are enriched by one's actions;

The length of time the influence of one's actions continues;

The importance for human welfare of the issues or problems in which one is actively interested;

The proportion of one's life—time, energy, thought, work—which one gives to the struggle to find a solution to these problems;

The eagerness with which one seeks to gain sound judgment from the experiences of others throughout history;

The extent to which one seeks to gain strength by allying himself with the great forces of the universe.—EDITORIAL reprinted from *Character*, November 1936.

*Pertinent quotations from a recent article:*

## The High School Becomes Socially Significant

The high school is primarily an institution for social service.

The ways of living in the family, the community and as individuals determine the stability of the social whole.

The wholesome growth and guidance of children are more important parental concerns than the production of them.

Religion as a factor in social control has lost its early ascendancy.

The high school is one of society's instruments for training youth for life.

A socially significant high school fosters and nourishes the physical, mental, social and moral life of youth toward higher achievements and nobler ends.

To the extent that youth are inspired by their high school training and experience to want to take their places in society as constructive citizens and then to endeavor to lessen social hazards, the high school is socially significant.

The high school that fosters and nourishes the natural social desires of its adolescent boys and girls for self-directive power, altruistic service, praise and commendation when deserved, and guides them in their enthusiasm and eagerness to do things successfully, is socially significant.

The high school that cultivates character through the establishment of high ideals of conduct is socially significant.—HARRISON H. VAN COTT, *New York State Education*, December 1936.

## Curriculums Must Be Reorganized:

### Socializing the Secondary School

Magnificent school buildings are erected, novel seating arrangements are contrived, qualifications of teachers are raised, libraries are enriched, and parent-teacher organizations hold their monthly "sociables," but with a few exceptions, the curriculum remains unchanged.

A thorough reorganization of the secondary school curriculum is necessary. The offering of the modern high school should be based on existing conditions and the

trends indicated by them. Only subject matter which contributes in a substantial way to the education of the child should have a place in the program of studies. The mere fact that certain subjects have always constituted the backbone of the curriculum is beside the point. Each course must stand on its own merit, on its own intrinsic value.

Each subject must contribute to a universal need or constitute a valuable accomplishment for the average person. Individual differences in heredity, environment, and in home and elementary-school training may be adjusted under wise and adequate guidance.—PROFESSOR C. D. EBAUGH, *The School Executive*, November 1936.

*Do you agree with Major Nelsen?*

### Let's Teach Communism

Let's teach communism in every American school. Let's find out what is this thing we are so afraid of.

Mind, we say "teach," not "preach."

There is a vast difference between studying something and believing in it.

The human mind, in a democracy especially, should be free, free to explore any field of knowledge. An educational system that inhibits that is gross, but futile, tyrannical. The alert mind knows no fetters.

And everyone knows about the perverse pursuit of forbidden fruit. It's an instinct.

Tell them they mustn't and they will. The Creator found that out in six days back in the beginning when He created heaven and earth. Possibly He knew it before.

Let our schools, as a matter of national defense, if you please, teach the facts about communism. Let students generally enlarge their knowledge of it.

And now we are all lathered up at the suggestion that communism—the most talked of thing in the world—might properly be studied.

Of course we will never accept some of its modern phases, are less likely to do so if we allow ourselves to know more about them.—MAJOR ARTHUR M. NELSEN, *Fairmont, Minn., Sentinel*, editorial reprinted in *Minnesota Journal of Education*, November 1936.

*Mathematics is on the offensive:*

### Why We Teach Mathematics

When boys and girls study mathematics and language they are devoting attention to a consideration of those characteristics which uniquely set man apart from other creatures. They are engaged in truly human studies.

If we are content with only social teaching, as some educators appear to advocate at the present time, our education is not essentially different from that of bees in their hives, ants in their hills, and beavers in their colonies. We are all conscious of the grave problems of an economic, social, and political nature that engulf us. But their existence should not lead us to acquiesce to a view of education that is content with facile phrases and catchwords about the present social order in a changing society.

We can truthfully say that no one has an adequate appreciation of human society as we know it in our western civilization if he has not studied mathematics. We should preach to our students the gospel that no well educated person should be content to know in a mere parrot-like way that mathematics has been fundamental in our civilization.

He should have the ambition to know why it has been important and he cannot know why it has been important, still is important, and will be more important, unless he studies it in some fairly systematic way.—K. P. WILLIAMS, *The Mathematics Teacher*, October 1936.

## Monticello Junior High's Graduated

By

# HOMework PLAN

LAURENCE BRINK

TWO PARENTS called on the principal of a junior high school on the same afternoon. One complained because her child had so much home study in general science that piano practice, outdoor play, and even sleep were seriously curtailed. The other parent wondered why her boy had no home work to do, though his school reports showed his work to be unsatisfactory.

This whole problem of homework seems to be far from solved. Practice and theory are by no means uniform in various school systems. Perhaps the experience and observations of one school man, and a description of the practice in one school, may be of value to others.

Parents, of course, generally assume that homework is a necessary part of school practice, since it was customary in their own school days. This is a relic of the time when the learning process consisted of assignment and recitation in the classroom, and preparation outside.

To many school people as well, even those who have given up the old recitation method of teaching, there seem to be advantages

in the assignment of home study. They say that it makes possible the covering of more ground than in the class period alone. It provides for individual differences by allowing more time for preparation for the exceptionally slow, and by giving opportunity for additional learning by the exceptionally able. Most cogent of all arguments, it provides the experience necessary in learning how to work independently, an ability that will be needed in more advanced study and in adult life.

Those who oppose homework seem to have an equally good case. They argue that home preparation offers an opportunity for unwise and sometimes dishonest use of the help of older members of the family. It may deprive children of time needed for play and other occupations. It is likely to develop bad study habits. One teacher may assign so much work that preparation for other courses suffers.

Finally, the work assigned to be done at home may be impossible because of lack of study material or uncertainty of assignment, with consequent waste of time, incompleteness of preparation, and discouragement of pupils.

In the junior high school with which the writer is associated, we have tried to retain the advantages and avoid the dangers of homework by providing for a carefully limited but gradually increasing amount, and by adhering to certain principles in making assignments.

Our general principle is that learning is an integrated process. Exposition, discussion, testing, study, and other aspects cannot be separated. It is impossible to prepare for learning in the classroom and do the

—\*—  
EDITOR'S NOTE: *A well-known physician, who was at the time more concerned about rhetorical effect than scientific accuracy, made the statement that the only way to treat migraine headache is with contempt. One of the commonest kinds of headache that afflicts the body pedagogical is the homework problem. Too long now it has been treated with contempt, but from the Monticello Junior High School at Garfield Heights, Ohio, we bring news of a new prescription that promises some relief for the homework headache.*

learning elsewhere. What can be done at home is only one of the approaches to the problem before the class, and it should be limited to those parts of the work that can best be done independently and individually.

In the seventh and eighth grades we give each pupil one home assignment weekly in each subject. These assignments are supposed to require from thirty to forty-five minutes of work by pupils other than the exceptionally able or the exceptionally slow. In order that there may not be conflicts by which the load of outside assignments is concentrated, each subject has a day of the week set aside for it. Thus, social-studies assignments are made on Monday, general science on Tuesday, mathematics on Wednesday, English on Thursday, and foreign languages on Friday.

In the ninth grade the situation is a little different. The number of subjects is smaller, the number of study periods in school is larger, the pupils are more mature, and the high school with its different methods of study is nearer at hand.

Hence it would seem that ninth grade pupils should have considerably more homework than the younger ones. They are given a daily assignment of the same thirty to forty-five minute difficulty instead of the weekly assignment to pupils of the lower grades. Teachers of both sets of pupils are not only permitted but expected to give homework according to the schedule described, but no more.

More important, however, than these positive and negative limitations on the amount of homework is the nature of the assignment. I venture for the sake of clarity to express some of the governing principles in a rather didactic style, though I recognize that some of them are open to argument. Some, on the other hand, may appear to be obvious; even so, it may not be amiss to recall them.

A teacher should never assign homework without having a pretty fair notion of the

length of time required, and the difficulty. It is a wholesome practice for the teacher to make the same preparation that is required of pupils.

Then, if he discounts his greater maturity and his better habits and techniques of work, he will arrive at something of an understanding of what he has required of his pupils. Sometimes he will be surprised. Besides his conclusions as to quantity, he will often learn something of the nature of the difficulties that he must clear away for the pupils.

The teacher should never make an assignment of homework without knowing that the necessary material is available and that the pupil knows where and how to get it.

Assignments might be given, for example, to find and cut from magazines at home pictures to illustrate a notebook. Unless the teacher knows that the pupil has such magazine pictures, and is permitted to cut them, such an assignment is futile. It may lead to failure through no fault of the pupil. It may lead to dishonesty through his cutting copies not his own. It has been known to cause parents to spend money for copies, or to spend hours searching through the neighborhood.

Collection of nature-study materials in their field may be equally futile. Such tasks as these should not be required, but they constitute excellent voluntary or supplementary activities. Assignments requiring the use of library reference books may be very good, but only if the teacher knows that the pupil has a study period to spend in the library, and that there is a sufficient number of the books to supply the need.

An assignment for home study should always contain definite instruction as to the form of expression that is to be given to the study. For example, the imperative should never be "Study" or "Learn," but "Write" or "Draw" or "Be prepared to tell before the class in a three minute talk," or even "Be prepared to write in class from memory."



Whenever a study task has been completed, there must be two succeeding steps, the pupil's response to the teacher or class, and the teacher's recognition. The homework must always be reported, whether through oral discussion, a paper to be turned in, or some other method.

Nothing is more difficult to answer than the child's complaint, "I prepared the assignment, but the teacher didn't call on me." This seems the ultimate of futility. No, perhaps not the ultimate. It is even worse for the pupil to prepare a careful paper and then to know that it is waste-basketed, unread. I would not say that every preparation should be criticized in detail. I would certainly not expect it to be graded (of which more later). But it would seem important that work worth doing by the child be given some form of prompt and thoughtful consideration by the teacher.

Marks, if they must be used in the school at all, are to be considered as the teacher's quantitative evaluation of the pupil's attainment of objectives.

If this apparent truism is really doctrine, then it is heresy to mark a pupil on effort, ability, industry, or anything else than the attainment of the objectives of the course or the unit. Homework should not, then, be graded. Such work is the assimilative activity through which the objective is approached. We give racing medals to those who win the race, not to those who have taken certain exercises or diet, or who have practiced a certain number of hours.

When a piece of homework is assigned, its performance should be absolutely required, since it is presumably an essential step toward the aim, but it should not itself be confused with the aim. Acceptance of this principle of not giving grades for homework will almost eliminate dishonesty in turning in others' work as one's own.

Assignments of homework on the grade

levels here considered should be for report the next day, and in such units as can be comprehended and prepared in that time. It is an invitation to bad work habits to assign to a fourteen-year-old a task to be reported "a week from next Wednesday," or at an even greater distance of time. Almost certainly the preparation will be postponed anyway, and the advantage of a long period for work will be lost.

If it is desired to have a large unit of work prepared at home, such as an extensive written report, the preparation may be divided into several sections, each to be ready the day following assignment.

Thus, we may assign (1) the listing of questions to be considered in the report; (2) preparation of a reading list; (3) preliminary outlining; (4) writing of certain sections; and so on. This method of assignment avoids the piling up of work, and gives the pupil experience in orderly procedure.

Clear distinction must be made in the minds of teacher, pupils, and parents, among the three purposes of homework assignments. Some tasks are a normal part of the classwork, and are intended for all members. Others are special exercises for the weaker members to use in strengthening their work. A third group is made up of supplementary tasks by which able and ambitious pupils may achieve additional learnings.

Assignment of the second and third types must be made specifically to individual pupils, and must be limited by the teacher's opinion as to their needs and abilities. Much of the complaint of parents as to the long hours of homework arises from the excessive ambition of some pupils to attain distinction. If extra assignments are thus adapted to the individuals, it would seem unnecessary to apply in their cases the general regulations as to daily and weekly homework.

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## EDITORIAL

# Sparta Valued "Activities"; Integration in 1832

TO INTEGRATE or not to integrate, to project or not to project, to educate through play or not to educate through play, to socialize or not to socialize, to individualize or not to individualize, to be or not to be and so on ad infinitum; the battle rages!

It is often said that if a person's foresight was as good as his hind sight one could always chart a true course and everything would be lovely. Yet one may question the truth of such a statement because we never at any time use the full experiences of the race. The so-called new in education is hardly new at all. It has just been rediscovered, revamped and streamlined.

The direct-method individualization, socialization, the project, the activities program, the integration program, education through play, all are found as we leaf back through the pages of history.

Sparta in giving us the first known state system of education utilized the activity idea. Their learning to do by doing was carried out in the life situation on an activities basis. Much the same thing may be said about the secondary education of the early Athenian Greeks. A further carry-on of the idea may be noticed in the Renaissance school of Vittorino De Feltre in Mantau, Italy and the court schools and Fürsten Schulen. Regarding the direct method of instruction, its genesis is coexistent with the development of man. It is the way the young learned to speak then and it is the way they learn to speak now.

The problem of individualization is hardly new either; Plato gives considerable

discussion to individual differences in his Republic. He suggests that there should be certain tryers or examiners appointed by the state to inspect the genius of every particular boy and to allot him the part that is most suitable to his natural talents.

In running through one of my old *Spectators*, I encountered an article on individualizing education. The following paragraph which follows after several examples of good individualizing may be of interest:

"How different from this manner of education is that which prevails in our own country; where nothing is more usual than to see forty or fifty boys of several ages, tempers and inclinations, ranged together in the same class employed upon the same authors, and enjoined the same tasks? Whatever their natural genius may be, they are all obliged to have the same capacity, to bring in the same tale of verse, and to furnish out the same portion of prose. Every boy is bound to have as good a memory as the captain of the form. To be brief, instead of adapting studies to the particular genius of a youth, we expect from the young man, that he should adapt his genius to the studies."<sup>1</sup>

Regarding education through play, an interesting reference was discovered in an early treatise on education. The following excerpts reveal the so-called new education in the old:

"I think I cannot be greatly out if I affirm, that an inclination to play, and some new device for amusement, are natural to all children: but that in all this their temperament comes to mix, and to determine or fix the particular species of their actions. Methinks it quite naturally follows from this, that the method of teaching children should be turned into a kind of play; particularly that of which they are fondest, without ever using any constraint; but by taking them, especially when

<sup>1</sup> *The Spectator*, Thursday, February 21, 1712.

grown up a little, by their natural inclination, and endeavoring thereby to incline them to good. It is therefore highly unreasonable to force children to learn by blows—spelling and reading should not only be taught by way of play or amusement, and conveyed to children in such a manner as not to be aware there was any design of teaching them; but this method is also to be continued in other things, 'til their reason is come to such maturity as to be able to act from higher motives."<sup>9</sup>

The principle of integration, correlation, orchestration, fusion or amalgamation is as old as the race. Real education takes place only when the individual sees the full implication of the new idea or fact through its cross referencing with the activities of life. The informal education of the Aborigines was of the integrating type.

Our formalized, subject-grooved education has precluded full value for effort expended. This fact was noted by Comenius, three hundred years ago, who claimed that the connection of knowledges (so constantly overlooked in the school room) was one of the major problems of education. Also Herbart with his correlation idea and Froebel with his unity of knowledge idea, and his criticism of piecemeal school studies, bordered on the integrating program.

The earliest American textbook that has come to my notice and that deals with fusion or subject-matter correlation is Par-

<sup>9</sup> Kruger, John Gottlob, *An Essay on the Education of Children*. London. Printed for J. Dodley, at Tulley's Head in Pall-Mall; Messrs. Hawes, Clarke and Collins, at the Red Lion, and Samuel Bladon and George Knapp, at The Paper-Mill, in Pater-noster Row. 1765. 77 pages. P. 79.

ley's (Samuel G. Goodrich) *First Book of History Combined with Geography*, published in 1832. My copy is dated 1853 and was published by Jenks Hincklings and Swan of Boston. An examination of the book reveals that the author has done quite an acceptable piece of integration.

It seems that we have great difficulty in charting a course and sticking to it. Maybe there are Lorelei that lure the good ship *Education* from its course. At least an examination of our schools shows the existence of many false gods, idols or symbols; extreme subject-matter specialization, credits, marks, honors, standardized examination, memory, and narrow departmental teachings all provide a haven for the lethargy of teachers.

It is much easier to give the sign or go through the ritual than it is to provide the real activity. Hence it is conceivable how new movements in education become trapped in the pockets of convention and are only released when enough people have sufficiently keen vision to cut through the barrage of symbols.

A way out of the dilemma may be found in clinging to the fundamental principles evolving from a dynamic philosophy of education. To see education as never finished, as providing for creative effort, as a way of living, as an intrinsically motivated growth, provides one with points of reference that will keep alive the discoveries of two thousand years ago, today and tomorrow.

E. R. G.

## Trusting Ourselves

THE PRIZE paradox of social institutions is that the instrumentation of security is the chief cause of individual and group insecurity. The organization, the standards, the authority implicit in stability inevitably become ends in themselves. As such they are quickly outmoded and anachronistic. They

are defenseless, but have to be defended in the name of stability. Hence, the insecurity of all concerned.

Applications and exemplifications of this paradox are found in almost every article in this issue of the CLEARING HOUSE.

What is to become of standardized or-

ganization and authority if we integrate the curriculum and so deny to "teachers" and "students" the security of quadratics, of scientific classifications, of chronological history, and of grammatical justifications? What disruption of superimposed discipline if Dr. Myers' proposals for democratic school organization were to find general acceptance and application! Would not pupils and parents and other citizens soon demand a share in controlling the school's administration?

Uncertainty and insecurity are here! But integrationists, democratizers, experimentalists, and "progressives" have not caused the state of doubt and challenge and disension that characterizes the educational world. They are merely proposing tentative solutions which necessarily involve attacks upon vested institutional interests and organizational stereotypes.

The general confusion in which education finds itself is, of course, merely a counterpart of that which characterizes the world in which the school exists.

In school as in society there are Tories who refuse to recognize that changes are called for; conservatives who fear that suggested "cures" may be worse than the diseases; fascists who demand discipline and obedience to authority; and radicals who envisage the conflict as a class struggle.

Liberals differ from all of these types in that they accept, so far as feasible, the present framework, and propose an accelerated evolution toward greater flexibility. They propose no final solution to the complex confusion. They suggest temporary expedients.

Thus they reverse the paradox. They see clearly that efforts to achieve security through fixed authority inevitably leads to insecurity in a world where rigidity is impossible. So they propose that we seek security by loosing the bonds of compartmentalization, authority, and centralized responsibility; in a word, that we seek se-

curity by casting off the devices intended to assure security.

The ills of democracy the liberals would cure by intensifying and extending the democratic way of life. In place of syllabi and examinations and honor marks and appointed principals, they would ask teachers themselves to be responsible educators.

To the challenge that many teachers are unfit or unwilling to accept such roles, they would answer that social pressures from fellow-teachers would soon compel their conformance or their retirement.

It is all quite shocking and unsettling! We are asked to envisage a professional interrelationship wherein we obey ourselves—wherein we act as reasonable, responsible, civilized human beings. We are bidden to believe not only that we can be such, but also that by essaying to act as though we were competent, we will grow to become professionally and individually adequate to direct our own institutional careers.

Such a challenge demands the thoughtful consideration of each one of us who aspires to lead. Indeed it must be recognized that the "dumb driven cattle" among us will be signing our own death-warrants if we permit such changes to take place; we should then be obliged to change or perish.

The abdication of one king in favor of a slightly different one will not solve the confusion of an empire or of a school. The retention of the trappings of monarchy are wasteful sops thrown to our infantile selves. We need to depend on ourselves, to trust ourselves, individually and collectively. To temper our enthusiasms and to attenuate our conflicts we may set up principles and modes of procedure by which we will abide. But always they will be *ours* to amend, to modify, or to rescind. One of us—*primus inter pares*—will see to the mechanics, but it will be *our* school, *our* opportunities to serve our age constructively and creatively.

P. W. L. C.



# SCHOOL LAW REVIEW

## LIABILITY *for* INJURIES

By DANIEL R. HODGDON, Ph.D., J.D.

### *Liability for Injury in Gymnasium*

A pupil was required to take part in a game of field dodgeball in a school gymnasium. As a part of the game it was necessary to run as swiftly as possible toward the brick wall of the gymnasium and to dodge opponents, in order to retrieve the ball.

A pupil playing the game slipped and fell and struck a corner of a brick pilaster which projected from the wall of the building. Corner boards had been installed to guard the brick pilaster, but the board on this one had become loose and drawn away, leaving the pilaster unguarded.

The board of education was sued for negligence which caused the injury of the pupil. It was shown that it was a general custom to guard dangerous projections in a gymnasium with mats and paddings and where the board of education failed to provide suitable guards for the projections the board was liable for negligence to the one injured because of such negligence. The general rule in the cases of special classrooms is that they must be reasonably safe places for the special purposes for which they are designed to be used.

The court said, "There may be no special reason for protecting ordinary brick walls and projections in a classroom. But the reason and necessity for protection in a gymnasium, where basketball, field dodgeball and other violent games are played, is evident on the merest consideration. It requires no special knowledge or nicety of judgment to reach that conclusion."

The board of education has entire control of classrooms and gymnasium. It must exercise the forethought and caution that a reasonably careful person would exercise in designing the place and equipment and in prescribing the game. In broadening the curriculum to include the use of the gymnasium and dangerous pursuits it must take the added precaution necessary for reasonable safety and to meet the requirements of ordinary care.

The teacher in this case was not joined in the action. There are some considerations of the

teacher's position in this kind of case that should be discussed.

No doubt the teacher was liable for instructing a class in a dangerous place—unless the teacher was compelled to do so against his wish and power to prevent the use of the gymnasium. Did the teacher notify the board of education or his superior officer of the dangerous condition? Could the teacher have prevented the injury to the pupil by substituting a less dangerous game for the one played, until the danger had been removed? Here is a case where a teacher might have been held liable for negligence.

*Bradly v. Board of Education of the City of Oneonta, N.Y.*, 268 N.Y.S. 187, 276 N.Y.S. 623, 241 A.D. 651 (Mar. 4, 1936)

### *Injury on Playground*

A school board ordered a slide for children to be erected on a school playground. The superintendent of schools reported to the board that the slide had been properly installed and the board of education accepted the report of the superintendent of schools.

Shortly thereafter a six-year-old child playing on the slide fell from the top and severely injured himself.

The slide was found to have been installed so as to tip slightly to one side. The members of the board of education individually, the superintendent of schools and the athletic supervisor were all sued for negligence in constructing and maintaining the slide in a dangerous condition.

It is becoming more common in the past few years to join the teacher in actions against the board of education on the theory that where the board of education may not be liable the teacher may be liable independently of the board. Little was heard of actions against teachers for negligence until lately, when it seems to have been discovered that teachers in the exercise of their duties as teachers were not agents or employees, which would make the board of education liable for their negligence while performing the duties of teaching. They can be likened to independent contractors. Teachers incur a separate and distinct liability.



The jury which heard this case brought in a verdict against all defendants; board members, superintendent and teacher. The case was appealed to a higher court.

Members of the board of education are seldom sued individually for negligence. The only time board members are liable individually is where they have failed to perform some ministerial act imposed upon them by law. They are not liable for using their judgment or discretion, no matter how poor or how bad the judgment may have been, just as long as it is the best judgment they may have and it is honestly exercised.

The same rule applies to superintendents and school teachers. When the superintendent of schools is delegated by the board to perform some ministerial act he is liable for any negligence which may injure another.

In the foregoing case, the superintendent however was held to have used the best judgment he could in making the inspection of the slide. The board of education used its judgment in accepting the superintendent's report. It may have erred in judgment, which a board of education has a right to do. The law gives the board such a right to err in judgment and discretion—as long as it is an honest error of judgment or discretion. The board of education or its members individually were therefore not liable for the negligent installation of the slide. The school board as a unit, not as individual members, accepted the report of the superintendent. The superintendent was not shown to be negligent in making the inspection necessary.

The teachers cannot be held liable unless it is shown that they individually were guilty of the active negligence which caused the wrong. There must be evidence that they did or failed to do an act that caused the injury. It was not shown that they were obliged to inspect the slide each day, nor had they ever received any such instructions from the board which made them responsible for the maintenance of the equipment. The higher court therefore reversed the verdict of the jury.

To what extent teachers are liable for the nature of the apparatus about school plants without being made responsible by order of the board was not shown in this case. A teacher however is usually considered liable if there is any active negligence shown.

*Medsker et al v. Etchison* 199 N.E. 429 (June 28, 1936)

### *Injury by an Animal*

There is an old rule of law that a dog is always entitled to one bite or his first bite before he can be said to have a reputation for being vicious. The following case seems to illustrate the principle that

every horse is entitled to one kick.

The board of education ordered a load of wood to be delivered to a school from an independent contractor. The wood dealer drove his load of wood onto the playground just before recess, and was in the act of unloading the wood when recess was declared. A child went near one of the horses. The horse suddenly kicked the child in the stomach and the child later died from the injury. The teacher, the board of education, and driver of the wagon were sued.

The court held that it was a well settled principle of the law that the owner of an animal having no natural propensities to be vicious, cannot be held liable for the acts of such animal unless it be established that the owner had knowledge, either actual or constructive, of its vicious disposition. Since the horse had always been gentle in the past and this was the first time it had showed signs of being vicious the driver and owner of the animal could not be held liable. The board in ordering wood for the school was performing a governmental function and was not liable. The teacher could not be held liable, as the presence of the wagon and the horse on the playground at recess did not constitute an act of negligence on her part.

*Barnett v. Pulla et al* 182A 879 (April 8, 1936)

### *The Case of the Funny Face*

In a case where a pupil who has returned home and shouts from the window on the upper part of his home "Funny Face" to the teacher as he passes the house, the pupil can be punished by the teacher when the child appears in school again. The face of the teacher must be respected no matter how funny it may be.

A teacher's authority extends into the home when the acts of the child in his own home go beyond the home to degrade, humiliate, or ridicule the teacher because such act affects the welfare of the school.

### *The Ribald Ditty Case*

A teacher who is ridiculed in the presence of others by a pupil, although the teacher may or may not be present, is permitted to punish the pupil thereafter. The teacher had a right to punish a pupil who attended a party and sang in the presence of others at the party the following ditty:

My teacher is a bald headed ass,  
A bald headed ass is he,  
No more hair will grow on his head,  
Than grass will grow on me.

A local Yankee judge's opinion is expressed by the following: It is said that the pupil told the

truth. The teacher was bald headed. That is not disrespectful in itself, as baldheadedness in some is inevitable yet honorable. The judge and learned counsel were also baldheaded, and worthy members of the community. It is likewise true that grass never grew upon any pupil.

But to refer to a teacher as an ass, is to insult the dignity of so worthy a public servant, by classifying him in a group of lowly and humble creatures to which it would be impossible for him to have the remotest biological resemblance.

### *Keeping Pupils After School*

The detention or keeping in of pupils for a short time after the rest of the class has been dismissed, or the school has closed, as a penalty for some misconduct, shortcoming, or mere omission, has been very generally adopted by the schools, especially those of the lower grades.

The law considers this as one of the recognized methods of enforcing discipline, and promoting progress of the pupils in the public schools. The courts hold that it is a mild and non-aggressive method of imposing a penalty, and inflicts no disgrace upon the pupil. The theory of the law is that the additional time thus spent in studying his lessons presumably inures to the benefit of the pupil.

However mistaken a teacher may be as to the justice or propriety of imposing such a penalty at any particular time, it has none of the elements of false imprisonment about it, unless imposed from wanton, wilful, or malicious motives. In the absence of such motives, such a mistake amounts only to an error of judgment in an attempt to enforce discipline in the school.

*Fertich v. Michener*, 111 Ind. 472, 11 NE 605, 14 NE 68 AmR 709 (April 28, 1887).

### *Careless Acts of Pupils*

A public-school pupil cannot be punished for a careless act, no matter how negligent, if it is not wilful or malicious.

When a child was suspended until he or his father paid for a broken window, the court held that when an action of this kind is taken in the case of a poor boy, it might mean indefinite suspension. This rule might in a great many cases, if enforced, prevent the further attendance of pupils at the public schools, when the laws of the state compel attendance.

The law maintains the principle that it is not desirable nor permissible that a child be excluded from the common schools because, by a careless or

negligent act, without malice or wilfulness he has injured or damaged school property to such an extent that it is beyond his power, or that of his parents or guardian, to make compensation for it.

The father may be able to have replaced this glass in the window without serious financial detriment, and it might be cheaper for him to do so. But if he saw fit to stand upon his rights, he was privileged to do so, and by so doing test the power and authority of the school boards to adopt and enforce such rules to pay for damaged school property. As in certain instances this might deprive poor children who are careless, as all children are careless, the board or teacher would be restrained from enforcing such a rule as illegal and ultra vires, beyond their scope of power.

*Holman v. Trustees of School District*, 6 LRA 536. (1889).

### *Pupils Past School Age*

If one who has reached his majority presents himself as a pupil, and is received and instructed by the teacher, he cannot claim the privilege of a pupil and receive it, and at the same time be subject to none of the duties incident to a scholar. If he is disobedient, he is not exempt from liability to proper punishment, as long as he is treated as having the character, which he assumes.

He cannot plead his own voluntary act of becoming a pupil, and insist that the punishment is illegal, as an excuse for creating disturbances, and escape consequences, which he would deserve either as a refractory, incorrigible scholar, or as one who persists in interrupting the ordinary business of the school.

*Stevens v. Fassett*, 27 Maine 266 (1847).

### *Secret Fraternities*

The teachers or the board of school control under the general power to make rules and regulations governing the school has no power to forbid secret fraternities or societies among public-school pupils. This holds good where the parents consent to the organizations and they are operated entirely outside of school hours and not on school property—unless the acts of the members are such as to constitute a positive, direct, and definitely defined menace to the welfare of the school. There should be something more than just opinion, there should be some actual instances which per se are detrimental to the discipline, morale and welfare of the school.

*Wright v. St. Louis Bd. of Education*, 295 Mo 466, 246 SW 43, 27 ALR 1061.

# BOOK REVIEWS

PHILIP W. L. COX, *Review Editor*

*American Life and the School Curriculum—Next Steps toward Schools of Living*, by HAROLD RUGG. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1936. 471 pages.

## THREE CURVES OF SOCIAL TREND

Out of the Dawn of the New Industrial Culture  
Three Curves of Interdependent Social Trends  
Traced Themselves on the Moving Record of  
History  
Economic Productivity . . . Social Invention  
Popular Consent.

Throughout the First Day of Industrialism  
It Was Taken for Granted that All Three Would  
Rise  
Sufficiently Synchronized to Preserve Social Stability.

But under the Momentum of Expansion  
Economic Productivity Was Sharply Accelerated,  
while Social Invention and Popular Consent  
Lagged Cumulatively Behind.

Meanwhile  
Other Constituent Trends, Such as the Growth of  
Population  
Which Had Given Life to the Advance of Man's  
Productivity,  
Passed Points of Inflection  
and Gave Fair Warning of Impending Social Change.

To the People Generally These Changes  
from Positive to Negative Acceleration Meant  
Nothing.

But to the Men of Creative Design—  
The Engineer, the Statesman, the Educator—  
They Were Signposts of a Great Transition.

## HYPOTHESIS

When, Therefore, in the Calculus of Human Events  
the Curves of Interdependent Social Trends  
either Pass Points of Inflection  
Or Produce Equations of Different Orders,  
Men of Intelligence Revise Their Systems of  
Thought  
and Design New Courses of Democratic Action.

It is to the elaboration of this hypothesis that  
Dr. Rugg sets himself in this brilliant volume. It  
is, he says, his first attempt to treat the total  
problem of American culture and education, his  
previous books having been limited to various  
aspects of it.

Book One of this volume is entitled *Education in the First Industrial Society* and includes treatments of School and Society, Modern Industrial-Democratic Culture, Schools of the Machine Age, and Educational Reform: Rearrangement, Not Reconstruction. Book Two is entitled *Education in the New Social Order*, and deals with Educational Reconstruction in the Great Transition, a New Psychology for a New Education, and Next Steps

Toward Schools of Living. There follows a valuable list of recommended readings.

It is in this second book that the reader who has been familiar with Dr. Rugg's writing and followed his growth and increasing insight will find most exhilaration. Particularly his Chapter XV: *Democratic Vistas: Multitudes of Coöperative Individuals*; Chapter XXIV: *Man as Artist-in-the-Making*; and his final chapter: *Three Curves of Social Trend*; the Educator and Social Reconstruction will arouse new enthusiasms and galvanize his positive purposes and activity anew.

*Humanized Geometry—An Introduction to Thinking*, by J. HERBERT BLACKHURST. Published by the author, Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa, 1934. 206 pages, \$1.

The subheading of this attractive volume might lead one to fear that the author felt that he had discovered a royal road to learning. In the preface, however, one finds that a cautious and probably a valid assumption is posited. "We do not assume that one improves the processes of his thinking by merely thinking about something. Rather we assume that one improves these processes by thinking, while studying the ways in which effective thinking is done."

It turns out to be the major title that is puzzling. The pedagogical treatment of the subject is doubtless superior to that of conventional books, though the absence of both the customary divisions into books or chapters and the absence of a table of contents makes it not very easy to use. Its treatment of axioms as assumptions to be examined, its reiteration of the forms of syllogistic reasoning, its inclusion of historical perspective and its enlightening discussions of processes, principles, and definitions are all of them excellent. Apparently it is to this pedagogical aspect that the word "humanized" refers, for the book is almost barren of practical applications.

*Integrated Mathematics, with Special Application to Algebra*, by JOHN A. SWENSON. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Edwards Brothers, Inc. 446 pages, \$1.47.

In this text the author endeavors to preserve the unity of mathematics and its applications by emphasizing the relation of the various branches of mathematics to each other and their application to related fields in other subjects. Application is

therefore made to business, statistics, life insurance, instalment buying, small loans, music, economics, and science.

If it is the function of mathematics to help the student to understand and interpret the world about him quantitatively, aspects of this world that lend themselves to quantitative treatment must be presented in such challenging fashion as to arouse in the pupil the curiosity regarding measurements, frequencies, variabilities, computations, and representations. The author has gone a considerable distance toward such a desirable presentation while keeping the mathematical topics as a basis of organization of his book. A number of these topics are relatively new comers to an introductory course; e.g., The Cartesian Coördinate System in a Plane; Trigonometric Functions; and Irrational Numbers. There is a freshness and vitality to the book that should assure it the attention of pioneers among mathematics teachers.

*Secondary Education Under Different Types of District Organization*, by TED B. BERNARD. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. 93 pages, \$1.50.

This study, while based principally on the educational conditions of Grayson County, Texas, has

significant applications for any non-urban area to be served by secondary education. Everywhere it is an open question whether the advantages and disadvantages, so obvious in the case of the small-school-district, secondary-school unit, are such as to justify a change to a consolidated high school or even to a county high school.

The arguments in favor of the larger units have seemed convincing. State after State has encouraged and subsidized the tendency. It has been asserted that better teachers could be obtained and retained; that curricular and "extra-curricular" activities and such special services as health and guidance could be provided more adequately in the larger schools without excessive costs; that better supervision of teachers and pupils could be provided; and that the new buildings would be safer, more specialized, and more beautiful.

From his study, Dr. Bernard concludes from his factual and comparative study that these claims are generally justified—especially in the case of the county high school. Consolidation of districts with differing economic resources may be burdensome to the less wealthy one, though educationally it is an advance over the small unit.

*Studies in Problems of the Consumer*, by KENNETH B. HAAS. Bowling Green,

**ANNOUNCING** a new group of little books on  
the social studies, of which the first two published are

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Brief yet well-rounded, unbiased yet colorful presentations of current problems and their historical backgrounds, for the junior or senior high school.

## NEWSON & COMPANY

72 Fifth Ave., New York, N.Y.

2500 Prairie Ave., Chicago, Ill.

Kentucky: Business University, 1936, (mimeographed) 127 pages.

Early in the present century Dr. Harvey Wiley and Theodore Roosevelt pushed through Congress our first national legislation to give some protection to the consumer. From a somewhat earlier year, Florence Kelley and her Consumers League had been endeavoring to awaken among purchasers some awareness of their social responsibilities for labor conditions, for their own health, and for community welfare in general. Like so many other hopeful movements, the education of the consumer, either as a social factor or as a personal evaluator of goods and services, lost its momentum during the War period.

Meantime, propaganda and advertising and commercial dominance of political parties and legislatures grew in strength and adeptness. Henry Harap's *Education of the Consumer* pointed a way for schools to serve the community and the individual in this respect, but most teachers and school administrators were either too inert or too cautious to follow his lead.

In the lesson book here reviewed, Dr. Haas has presented a considerable number of aspects not only of the socially important process of selecting and purchasing of goods and services, but also of the problems of saving and investment, lending autonomy, and budget control. It should be very helpful to teachers and to students who may use it.

*Conference on Mental Health.* Report of the Sixth Annual Principals Parliament of Washington, February 22, 23, 1935. Edited by F. J. CLARK and LILY C. HOLT of Roosevelt High School, Seattle, Washington. (Mimeographed). 59 pages. Distributed by the editors, 50 cents.

There are reported herein the addresses and the ensuing discussion of five panels in which specialists, teachers, and administrators participated; the sixth in a series of yearly or biennial conferences sponsored by the high school principals of western Washington. The panel subjects were Mental Health, a Public Problem; Early Symptoms of Mental Disease; The Relation Between Physical Health and Mental Health; Lest the School Misfit Become a Life Failure; and What Can the Principal Do In Mental Health Guidance?—A Summary.

Quite as significant as the excellent contents of this volume is the professional accomplishment of the Secondary School Principals in mobilizing and organizing the interests of themselves and their staffs around the fundamentals of educational thinking and procedure rather than the superficialities of mechanics and method and syllabi.

## Concerning . . .

# EVERYDAY ECONOMICS

By Janzen and Stephenson

"I can sum up what I think of EVERYDAY ECONOMICS in a few words: it is by far the best text on the subject for high school students which I have ever had the pleasure of seeing. The organization of the material; the style in which it is written; the illustrations, charts and diagrams; the questions, problems and references at the end of each chapter; and the mechanical make-up of the book are all of an unusually high order. The authors treat the subject with sufficient fullness and in a most interesting manner, relating the material to present-day conditions and interests in such a way as to make its study a pleasure." Hugh M. Gilmore, John Marshall Junior-Senior High School, Los Angeles, Calif.

and

# THE CITIZEN AND HIS GOVERNMENT

By Lapp and Weaver

"I think THE CITIZEN AND HIS GOVERNMENT is a real improvement over the conventional text in high school civics. The functional approach is so much better than the old approach, and the prime objective of developing in the students, not only information and governmental principles, but right attitudes and reactions is a very important one in the light of recent developments." J. Nelson Norwood, President, Alfred University, Alfred, N.Y.



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*From Then Until Now. Old World Background of Our Civilization*, by J. T. GREENAN and H. L. COTTRELL. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1936, 421 pages, \$1.36.

This text presents a fused course in geography, history and civics, covering the backgrounds of our present culture. It aims to develop in young people a proper appreciation of the contribution to our civilization made by many nations. It is planned for the social-studies work of the sixth or seventh grade. The twelve units follow a chronological sequence: I, Primitive Peoples; II, Egypt; III, Babylonia and Assyria; IV, The Hebrews; V, Greece; VI, Rome; VII, Middle Ages; VIII, Spain and Portugal; IX, Scandinavia; X, France, Germany, Holland, Belgium, and Switzerland; XI, The British Commonwealth; and XII, America. Each unit except the first brings the study of the people and the country up to date.

The illustrations are generous and effective. The motivations are unique: Units IV to XII are stories told by modern representatives of the peoples concerned; Units I to III are conducted tours, the first to a museum of natural history, the others to the countries. Suggested related activities, review questions, and in some cases exemplifications of pupil products follow the units.

An appendix lists twenty-six "people who make history": Hitler, Mussolini, and Lloyd George being the only living immortals according to the author—a superficiality that is typical of too much of this otherwise admirable text. The authors would probably be as much surprised to be accused of condoning the coercion and terrorism of fascism as the reviewer is to discover their uncritical acceptance of such "improvements" in Italy as forcing strikers to work, and increasing the army and navy, and the improvement of education (p. 170). The only criterion for judging such changes to be beneficial is the criterion of coercion, restraint, and anti-democracy.

*First Course in Algebra*, by C. N. STOKES and VERA SANFORD. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1935, v + 439 pages, \$1.28.

*Second Course in Algebra*, by C. N. STOKES and VERA SANFORD. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1936, vii + 388 pages, \$1.28.

This series of algebras makes a worthwhile contribution to secondary school mathematics in the following ways:

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this plan: introductory motivating paragraph; presentation, learning practice, appraisal test, and proficiency practice for each sub-unit; chapter summary; and mastery test. In the *Second Course* the number of sub-units is reduced.

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3. Treatment of content. The necessary traditional content is reorganized and treated in a unique manner by supplementing with new matter which appeals to students. This is best exemplified by listing of the topic titles of a representative chapter in the latter part of each book. The seven topics of Chapter XII—The Number Scale—(*First Course*) are Purpose, Irrational Numbers, Applications of Square Root, Perfect Squares, Algebraic Method of Finding Square Root, Geometric Illustrations of Finding Square Roots, and The Zero Point. Equally striking are the twelve topics discussed in Chapter VIII—The Binomial Theorem—(*Second Course*): Purpose, The Pascal Triangle, Combinations, Derivation of the Binomial Theorem, Mathematical Induction, Coin Tossing, The Normal Distribution Curve, The Formula for a Given Term, Negative and Fractional Exponents, The Pascal Triangle Extended, The Compound Interest Law.

Throughout the series the fine mathematical acumen and the superb teaching skill of the authors are frequently revealed in a manner which is worthy of the highest praise of all who sincerely desire a better content for the upper group in 9th and 11th year mathematics.

J. A. DRUSHEL

*Adventures in Appreciation*, edited by H. C. SCHWEIKERT, H. A. MILLER, and LUELLA B. COOK. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1935. 1065 pages, price \$1.92.

This generous anthology for eleventh- and twelfth-grade students contains selections from a wide range of writers and periods. It includes one novel, one novelette, and one long narrative poem complete from George Eliot, R. L. Stevenson, and Lord Alfred Tennyson respectively, and three plays by Duorseny, Shakespeare, and De Kruif. It draws upon Hardy, Kipling, Arnold, Wordsworth, Longfellow, and Lowell among the conventionally accepted writers. Its freshness, however, is largely due to the generous space allowed to the writers who have interpreted the present scene—Frost, Benet, Robinson, Sandburg, Schauffler, Lindsay, Masfield, Housman, Amy Lowell, Repplier, Beebe, F. L. Allen, and many others.

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mere symptom of what Clarence Day has called "Our Simian World"—our monkey-like, avid curiosity, our lack of discrimination between mere events and the movements or conditions that they reflect. For it is the former that is reflected in the racing, driving, high pressure of newspaperdom; the latter, while carefully prepared and attractively offered the reader, are less often thought of as newspaper functions.

*Tracy Union High School Survey*, by JESSE B. SEARS. Tracy, California, Board of Education, 1935, 216 pages.

Dr. Sears' survey is concerned with all aspects and problems of the Tracy Union High School. It is an unbiased study of the school to serve as a basis for adjusting the personal differences and improving the institution. The report deals with the community's plan for the school, the high-school student body, the curriculum and its administration, the program of student activities, the measurement of ability and achievement of students, the students' progress through the school, the organization and administration of the high school, the school staff, the school plant and its uses, and school costs and business management. Dr. Sears was assisted in the survey by his colleagues, Professors Proctor, Eells, and Almack.

This volume might well serve as a basis for a self-survey undertaken by any high-school staff.

*A Brief Survey of Latrobe High School*, VIRGINIA MCGINNIS, Editor. Latrobe, Pennsylvania, High School, 1935, 286 pages.

Under the guidance of the Faculty Sponsor, D. L. Young, this attractive and adequate history of their alma mater was prepared by the students of Latrobe High School. It contains, besides the story of the school's development, an exposition of the school's activities, staff, and enrollments, and an alumni directory. It should serve as an example of a well integrated project that may well inspire many other high-school faculties to direct the attention of their pupils to a study of and an appreciation of their schools and the generosity of their communities.

*Speech for the Classroom Teacher*, by DOROTHY I. MULGRAVE, PH.D. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1936. 387 pages.

In this text Professor Mulgrave has assembled all the information which the classroom teacher requires to deal efficiently with both his own speech problems and those of his students. In the words of the introduction, the book "sets forth the most pressing problems of the classroom teacher with re-

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gard to speech," and presents the best modern thought with regard to causation and corrective measures.

The scope is wide, and yet the treatment of each phase of the speech field is adequate for the needs of a teacher who is not a speech specialist, but who must use speech as a teaching tool, and must give speech instruction to the normal students in his care. Perhaps the strongest feature of Dr. Mulgrave's work is the sense of unity preserved throughout. The selection of details, the inclusion or omission of material and explanation, and the relative amount of space devoted to each strand of speech activity are all determined by the purpose as expressed in the title.

In addition to clear and concise exposition of the physiological, psychological and pedagogical treatment of speech problems of the normal child, there is a chapter on the problem of speech pathology as it affects the classroom teacher. The fundamentals of voice and speech are very thoroughly presented with various exercises to develop needed skills. In this section the chapter on phonetics is particularly usable and clear. The section on the speech arts contains many new and valuable selections for practice, adapted to use on the various educational levels from the elementary to the college group.

The text is amply illustrated by diagrams and charts. Both in arrangement and setup it is practical and complete. There is no text comparable to it in the field which is equally valuable both for the pre-service training of teachers and for reference for teachers already in the field.

LETITIA RAUBICHECK

*Youth: How Communities Can Help.*  
United States Office of Education, Bulletin 1936, No. 18-1. 77 pages, 10 cents (from Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C.)

This bulletin is the first of a series prepared by the Committee on Youth Problems of which Fred J. Kelly is chairman. The titles of the forthcoming pamphlets are: *Leisure for Living; Education for Those Out of School; Vocational Guidance for Those Out of School; Employment Opportunities; Health Protection; and Surveys.*

"What happens to young people who leave school but cannot find jobs is a matter of national concern. During recent years the number of such youths has greatly increased. Nor can it be expected that this problem will disappear with the return of so-called 'normal times.'" So states Commissioner Studebaker in the Foreword.

These pamphlets should be read and discussed by every high school faculty and by every parent-

teacher association and civic society in America. There should then follow in every community some coördinated undertaking to deal intelligently and resourcefully with the problems that face youth and society.

*American History Review Book*, by J. L. STOCKTON, New York: The Review Book Company, 1935, vi + 378 + 31 pages, 68 cents.

In this compact book, American history is treated topically; emphasis is given to recent and contemporary movements and problems with only such treatment of the earlier periods as is needed to understand the situations of the more recent times. The cultural, economic, and social aspects of America are stressed rather than the purely political or the military. The volume is designed primarily for preparation for examinations; it therefore contains outline maps, charts, and diagrams, characteristic examination questions, and a very valuable chronological summary under four headings: President, Politics, Economics, and Foreign Affairs.

*Enriched Community Living—An Approach Through Art and Music in Adult Education.* Studies by the Division of Adult Education, State Department of Public Instruction, Wilmington, Delaware, 1936, directed by MARGUERITE H. BURNETT, and L. THOMAS HOPKINS, 235 pages, \$1.00, cloth edition \$1.25.

The purpose of the adventure in adult participatory education which is explained in this volume is emphasized in the title and justified in the section called "Viewpoint." It is stimulating and encouraging to find in this, as in many other projects for adults, the clear recognition that what is learned as knowledge or skill as a result of instruction and leadership, valuable as such learning may be, is less important than the changes in attitudes, interests, and practices of coöperative, expressive, individual, and community life. If our schools for younger people should find the vision and courage to take over this reorientation, as the more promising adventures in adult education have done, a new and glorious day would come for American youth and eventually for us all.

Part I deals with music as an approach to community living; Part II, with art as an approach; Part III, with culminating activities. Twelve of the fourteen chapters of Parts I and II are accounts of actual undertakings; the final chapters of each Part deal with procedures and techniques that proved successful. Part III explains the nature and purpose of the statewide and local exhibits and pageants, wherein each of the adult centers shared

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